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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA

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VOLUME II.

BALASOR TO BIRAMGANTA.

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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

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VOLUME II.

Balasor.—District in Orissa, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 20° 43′ 50″ and 21° 56′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 18′ 40″ and 87° 31′ 20″ E. long.; area, 2066 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 945,280 souls. It is bounded on the north by Midnapur District and the Tributary State of Morbhanj; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Cuttack District, the Baitaraní river forming the boundary line; and on the west by the Tributary States of Keunjhar, Nílgirí, and Morbhanj. The administrative head-quarters are at Balasor town, on the Burábalang river. Balasor derives its name from Bal-eswara, 'The Young Lord,' or 'Lord of Strength,' *i.e.* Krishna; or perhaps from Ban-eswara, 'The Forest Lord,' *i.e.* Mahádevá. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at Balasor town.

Physical Aspects.—Balasor District consists of a strip of alluvial land, lying between the hills which rise from the western boundary and the sea on the east. This strip varies in breadth from about 12 to 44 miles, and is divided into three well-defined tracts—the Salt Tract, nearest the coast; the Arable Tract, which constitutes the largest part of the District; and the Submontane or Jungle Tract. The Salt Tract extends along the coast, forming a strip a few miles broad, traversed by sluggish streams of brackish water, and clothed here and there with scrubby vegetation. Near the sea, the land rises into ridges from 50 to 80 feet high, and the western portion of the tract is covered with coarse long grass, which harbours large numbers of wild animals. Inland, the plain spreads out into prairies of coarse long grass and scrub jungle, which harbour numerous wild animals; but throughout this region there is scarcely a hamlet, and only a patch of rice cultivation

at long intervals. Towards the coast, the soil has a distinctly saline taste, and the manufacture of salt is carried on to a considerable extent. The Arable Tract, which adjoins this sandy strip, is a dead level of rice-fields; the soil is lighter in colour and more friable than that of Bengal generally. There is no forest throughout this tract, and the only trees are those which cluster round the villages, with a few scattered clumps of palms and screw-pines. The Submontane Tract is undulating, with a red soil, much broken up into ravines along the base of the hills. Masses of laterite, buried in hard ferruginous clay, appear above the surface as rocks or slabs. At Kopári, in *kilá* Ambohatá, about two square miles are almost paved with such slabs, dark red in colour, perfectly flat, and polished like plates of iron. A thousand mountain torrents have scooped out for themselves picturesque ravines, clothed with an ever fresh verdure of prickly thorns, stunted, gnarled shrubs, and here and there a noble forest tree. Large tracts are covered with *sál* jungle, which nowhere, however, attains to any great height. Balasor is watered by five principal rivers—the SUBARNAREKHA ('*Streak of Gold*'), the PANCHPARA, the BURABALANG ('*Old Twister*'), the KANSBANS, and the BAITARANI (the Styx of Hindu mythology). The Subarnarekhá enters Balasor from Midnapur District, and after flowing a tortuous southern course with gigantic bends east and west, falls into the Bay of Bengal. The river is navigable by country craft as far as Kálikápur, 16 miles from its mouth. It is nowhere fordable within Balasor District during the rainy months. The Pánchpárá is formed by the junction of an intricate network of small streams, of which the most noteworthy are the Jamirá, the Báns, and the Bhairingí, which unite, bifurcate, and reunite till they fall into the sea in one channel. The tide runs up for ten miles. One of the channels, the Báns, is deep enough at certain parts of its course for boats of four tons burthen all the year round. The Burábalang rises among the Morbhanj hills, and after an extremely tortuous course across Balasor District, during which it receives two small tributaries, also falls into the Bay of Bengal. The river is navigable by brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers as far as the town of Balasor, about 16 miles up its tortuous course; but the entrance to the river is difficult owing to the sandbar across its mouth. The Kánsbáns is only navigable for a few miles, and is notorious in the District for its sudden floods and the large extent of country which it submerges in the rainy weather. The Baitaraní, which forms the boundary-line between Balasor and Cuttack, becomes the Dhamrá five miles from its mouth, at its junction with the Bráhmaní from the Cuttack side. The Baitaraní receives on its Balasor side two tributaries, the Sálandí (or, more properly, Sálnadí) and the Mataí. Reference has been made to the sandbar at the mouth of the Burábalang; similar obstructions block

the entrances to the other Balasor rivers, seriously interfering with, or entirely preventing, navigation. The question of devising means for the removal of these bars and the prevention of their re-formation, has engaged the anxious consideration of Government; but the problem has not yet been solved.

Ports and Harbours.—There are seven principal ports in Balasor District, the names of which, beginning from the north, are:—SUBARNAREKHA, SARATHA, CHHANUYA, BALASOR, LAICHANPUR, CHURAMAN, and DHAMRA. Subarnarekhá is situated on the river of the same name, and is distant about 12 miles from its mouth. It was at one time by far the most important harbour on the Orissa coast, and it possesses special interest as being probably the earliest maritime settlement of the English in Bengal. That settlement was founded in 1634 on the ruins of the Portuguese factory at PIPPLI. Its exact position is no longer known, but it is supposed to have been about 4 miles farther up the river than the present port. In the early part of the last century, the settlement was already in a state of ruin and decay, on account of the silting up of the river mouth. Owing to changes in the course of the stream, no stone remains to mark the spot where the famous port once stood. In the days of its prosperity, ships sailed from the sea right up to the harbour; now the sandy bar at the entrance of the river is all but bare at low water, and in the south-west monsoon the port is quite unsafe, presenting an exposed lee shore with breakers right across its mouth. Beyond the bar, the river is deep and clear. The place is at present frequented chiefly by fishing boats, which cruise along the coast in fine weather as far as Purí. Concurrently with the gradual decay of Subarnarekhá, Churáman seems to have risen in importance, and in 1809 the Balasor Collector of Customs described it as 'the most safe and convenient port on the coast of Orissa,' and stated that it 'carries on a sea-going trade exceeding that of Balasor.' Since then this port and Laichanpur, which is 5 miles north of it, have both succumbed to the common enemy—silt; and the mouths of the *nalás* on which they are situated are so nearly closed, that 'to steer a small jolly-boat into them and out again to sea requires careful watching of the tides.' These *nalás* are branches of the same river, the Kánsbáns, which bifurcates at a point 7 miles in a straight line from the coast. Laichanpur is on the northern of these branches, which keeps the name of Kánsbáns; while Churáman lies on the southern branch, called the Gammaí. These rivers will probably be still further closed by the Coast Canal, now (1883) under construction, which will cut directly across them. Sárathá and Chhánuyá are similarly situated on the Sárathá and Pánchpárá rivers at their point of junction. They are practically one port, and are navigable to points 8 or 9 miles from the sea in a direct line. Native rice sloops of as much

as a hundred tons burthen can manage to get over the bar at high tide; and, once past that obstruction, there is no want of water. The banks are soft and muddy, and there is much difficulty in landing except at high water. The Dhámrá port, at the mouth of the river of the same name, is a good harbour, affording complete protection from the monsoon. It is visited by a considerable number of native vessels engaged in the Madras rice trade; and it is of greatly rising importance. The Dhámrá river discharges the united waters of the Mataí, Baitaraní, Bráhmaní, and Kharsuá rivers; and the port includes the navigable channels of all the streams so far up as they are affected by the tide. These limits embrace Chándbálí, Hansuá, and Patámundaí, the two last being in Cuttack District. Chándbálí is situated on a high and narrow ridge of sand on the banks of the Baitaraní river. It has gradually become a trading-place of considerable importance, the traffic being chiefly by steamer with Calcutta. It is now the principal port in the District. The port of Balasor consists of the portion of the Burábalang river fronting the town of Balasor. It is about 7 miles from the coast in a direct line, but the course of the river is so tortuous that the distance by water is 15 miles. The navigation at the entrance is somewhat difficult, and there is the usual bar at the mouth, the depth in spring tides being only one foot, while high water gives a rise of thirteen feet. Both Balasor and Chándbáli are frequented by sloops from the Madras coast and Ceylon; and the inhabitants of the Laccadive and Maldive islands also depend principally on this District for their supply of grain. The import and export trade of the Balasor ports is steadily increasing. In 1878–79, the imports were valued at £358,294, and the exports at £492,483; in 1879–80, the imports were returned at £407,821, and the exports at £533,939; in 1880–81, imports £416,952, exports £473,320; in 1881–82, imports £876,306, exports £477,563. The great bulk of the trade is with Calcutta. The sloops used along the coast for local traffic are built at Balasor, but the number of vessels belonging to the port has diminished since Government abandoned the manufacture and export of salt. A detailed description of the Balasor ports will be found in an article in the *Statistical Reporter* for April 1876 (quoted very fully in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xviii. pp. 252–262), from which the above information is mainly derived. See also the different ports under their respective alphabetical headings.

History.—Balasor was acquired with the rest of Orissa in 1803, since which year there have been many perplexing changes of jurisdiction. The first British officer in charge of the District, Captain Morgan, exercised authority between the coast and the Hill States, but all the *parganás* north of Nángaleswar and Sátmalang were included within Midnapur, and the limits to the south seem to have been very ill

defined. In 1804, a Collector was appointed, with jurisdiction as far south as the Bráhmaní river. From 1805 to 1821, Balasor was managed from Cuttack, and had no separate revenue officer; in 1821, the District was administered by a joint-magistrate as the deputy of the Cuttack Collector; and in 1827, it was made an independent Collectorate. But the interest of the British in the District dates from a much earlier period. Balasor town was one of the first English settlements in Eastern India. The story of its acquisition is romantic. In 1636, Mr. Gabriel Broughton, surgeon of the ship *Hopewell*, cured the Emperor's daughter, whose clothes had caught fire, and in 1640 he successfully treated one of the ladies of the Bengal Viceroy's *zanáná*. When asked to name his own reward, he replied that he wished nothing for himself, but begged that his countrymen might be allowed a maritime settlement in Bengal. Accordingly, in 1642, imperial commissions were made out granting the East India Company a land factory at Húglí, and a maritime settlement at Balasor. A few years previous to this (in 1634) the first English factory had been established at Pipplí, on the Subarnarekhá; but owing to the silting up of that river, it was found necessary to transfer the Pipplí factory to Balasor. The latter place was at once fortified, and became in reality the key to the position which England has since gained in India. During the long struggle between the Afgháns and the Mughals, and subsequently between the Mughals and the Maráthás for supremacy in Orissa, the English steadily kept the footing they had obtained. Defended on one side by the river, and on all others by a precipitous channel, which had been deepened so as to form a moat, and further protected by the guns on its ramparts and the armed merchantmen in the roads, Balasor was safe from attack, and soon became known as the only quiet retreat in the District for peaceful people. Industry and commerce gathered round it, and manufacturing hamlets and colonies of weavers nestled beneath the shadow of its fortified walls. Very different was the position at Húglí, where the English traders were subjected to every possible annoyance and exaction at the hands of the Mughal governors. In 1685, our countrymen were forced into open warfare; and in 1688, Captain Heath of the *Resolution*, the commander of the Company's forces, who had in vain negotiated for a fortified factory on the present site of Calcutta, could no longer tolerate the state of affairs, and, embarking all the Company's servants and goods, sailed down the Húglí and entered Balasor roads. About 1700, the mouth of the Burábalang river was beginning to be blocked with silt; and during the last century the river and sea threw up several miles of new land, leaving Balasor much farther inland than it was before. This silting up of the river mouth, of course, seriously injured the port; and the last blow was struck at its prosperity when, in 1863, the Government abandoned the

monopoly of the salt manufacture and trade. Meanwhile the English were firmly establishing themselves at Calcutta, and the commerce of Balasor and its importance were gradually transferred to that place.

Population.—The population of the District in 1872 was returned at 770,232, on an area the same as at present, namely 2066 square miles. According to the Census of 1881, it amounted to 945,280, or an increase of 175,048 (22·72 per cent.) on the enumeration of nine years previously. This large increase is not, as in some Districts of Bengal, more apparent than real, owing to defective enumeration in 1872, but is an actual advance of a population recovering during a series of prosperous years from the famine which decimated Orissa in 1866. The population in 1881 resided in 6331 towns and villages, and inhabited 160,799 houses; average density of population, 457·54 per square mile, as against 373 persons per square mile in 1872; number of houses per square mile, 81·13; number of villages per square mile, 3·06; inhabitants per occupied house, 5·88. Divided according to sex, there were—males, 461,461; females, 483,819. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 915,792, or 96·8 per cent.; Sikhs, 47; Muhammadans, 23,804; Christians, 815; Buddhists, 4; Jew, 1; 'others,' 4817. The chief aboriginal tribes in Balasor are the Gonds, who number 6290; and the Bhumijs, 2767. Among the semi-Hinduized aborigines the most numerous tribes are the Páns, of whom there are 48,192; the Kandárás, numbering 24,455; and the Chámárs, or dealers in leather, 8444. The number of persons of high caste include 119,373 Brahmans and 182,948 Khandáits or Khandáyats. The Khandáits, who are by far the most numerous caste in the District, are descended from the soldiers of the ancient Rájás of Orissa, who kept up large armies, and partitioned the land on strictly military tenures. These soldiers were of various castes and races, the officers being of good descent, while the lower ranks were filled by men of humble origin. On the establishment of a caste system, they all took rank with the military castes, but the present Khandáits are for the most part hardly to be distinguished from ordinary agriculturists. The number of males in Balasor belonging to pastoral and agricultural castes is 172,200; belonging to artisan castes there are 47,595, including 65,268 weavers. There are 26,160 Hindus who do not recognise caste; the great majority of these (23,057) are Vaishnavs. The population of the District is almost entirely rural, the only town containing more than 5000 inhabitants being Balasor itself, with a population of 20,265. The only other places in the District worthy of mention are Bhadrakh, on the high road between Calcutta and Cuttack; Jaleswar or Jellasor, on the Subarnarekhá, formerly one of the Company's factory stations; and Soro, on the Calcutta high road, about midway between Balasor and Bhadrakh. The towns and villages are thus classified in

the Census Report of 1881. Villages with less than 200 inhabitants, 4959; from 200 to 500, 1134; from 500 to 1000, 210; from 1000 to 2000, 26; from 2000 to 3000, 1; and 1 with from 20,000 to 50,000.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop in Balasor, as throughout the rest of Orissa; indeed, it may almost be called the only crop of the District, as it has been estimated that but one acre in a thousand of the cultivated area is sown with any other crop. The principal rice crop is sown in May and June; the reaping seasons vary for different varieties, the crops sown in high lands being repeated in July, August, and September; those sown on middling lands, in September and October; and the variety (*guru*) sown in low lands, in December and January. The coarse varieties of the grain are the most easily cultivated, but of late years the finer sorts have been more extensively grown than formerly. Manure, consisting of cow dung, ashes, tank mud, etc., is used at least once in five years, 10 cwts. being allowed for an acre of rice land. Rents vary according to the situation of the land (and its liability to heavy floods) and to the tenure on which it is held; the average rate for *pal* land, which produces the finer kinds of rice, and also bears a second crop, is 6s. Such land yields from 12 cwts. to 15 cwts. of coarse paddy, or from 7 to 10 cwts. of fine paddy every year, the average value of which may be taken as £1; the out-turn of the second crop may be valued at from 12s. to 16s. an acre. Nearly two-thirds of the District is cultivated, and the remaining portion is almost all incapable of tillage. Wages, and with them prices, have much increased in Balasor of late years. The wage of a day-labourer, which was in 1850 1½d., and had in 1860 risen to 3d., is now 3¾d.; and a similar rise has taken place in the wages of skilled workmen. The price of common rice in 1850 was 1s. 10½d. per cwt.; in 1860 it had risen to 2s. 3d. per cwt., in 1870 to 3s. 2d., and in 1880 to 3s. 6d. Owing to the extraordinary manner in which estates in Balasor are cut up, the condition of the peasantry is not very satisfactory. A single estate generally consists of several villages or patches of land situated in different *parganás*, quite separate, and often at a considerable distance from each other. Endless confusion regarding boundaries is, of course, the result. Further, a landholder cannot supervise the whole of his estate, and it is impossible for him to take an intelligent interest in it, or to do justice to the cultivators, who on their part must be satisfied with very small holdings, unless they are willing to hold under several proprietors, or to farm a number of scattered patches under the same landlord. Large farms are unknown; there are not in the whole District more than a hundred holdings of from 20 to 100 acres in extent, and about 60 per cent. are below 10 acres.

Natural Calamities.—The District suffers much from both flood and drought. The floods are due to the sudden rising of the rivers in the

hills during the rainy season, and almost every year the waters of the Subarnarekhá and the Baitaraní devastate large tracts of countr[y]. Protective works have been undertaken by Government at great cos[t], but the floods are quite unmanageable while they last, and the embank[-]ments which have been built are altogether insufficient for their contro[l]. The principal embankments are the Bhográi and Salsá Pát, on the lowe[r] reaches of the Subarnarekhá. Droughts, due to deficient rainfall, occu[r] from time to time, but fortunately the failure in the higher levels i[s] often compensated by increased fertility in the plains. In years o[f] flood, however, although the uplands are much benefited by the loca[l] rainfall, to which the floods are partly attributable, the extent of high land is so small that the increased fertility is by no means commensurat[e] with the loss of crops in the low-lying tracts. Serious droughts occurre[d] in the years 1836, 1839, 1840, and 1865. An account of the terrible famine of 1866 will be found in the article on ORISSA, and the reade[r] who wishes to study the details of that calamity should consult the *Report of the Famine Commissioners* (folio, 2 vols., Calcutta, 1867). The number of paupers who died in the town of Balasor in the five months June to October was 8900. Situated as it is, at the north-west corner of the Bay of Bengal, Balasor is also much exposed to the cyclones which arise in the bay. These cyclones are generally accompanied by irresistible storm-waves, varying in height from 7 to 15 feet, which sometimes penetrate as far as 9 miles inland. Such calamities occurred in 1823, 1831, 1832, 1848, and 1851. In the severest of these, th[e] cyclone of 1831, 26,000 persons were destroyed. Fortunately the tw[o] last cyclones (in 1872 and 1874) were not accompanied by storm-waves.

Manufactures.—The principal manufacture of the District is sal[t-]making, which is stated to have increased of late years. This manu[-]facture is susceptible of unlimited development. It is carried out [in] the saline tract along the sea-coast, chiefly by means of artific[ial] evaporation, the process being as follows:—At the beginning [of] December, the contractor selects his locality about a quarter or hal[f a] mile from the sea, and engages a class of men called *chuliyás*, [or] gangers. These men receive payment at the rate of 1s. a cwt. [for] whatever quantity of salt they turn out. They in their turn eng[age] working parties of *malangis*, or labourers, who are paid at the rat[e of] from 3d. to 4½d. a day. The ground is first marked out by a sha[llow] trench, and the grass and bushes are carefully dug up and remo[ved]. A deep ditch is next dug from the sea, by means of which twi[ce a] month the spring tides overflow the salt field, and fill a numb[er of] reservoirs four feet in diameter and two or three feet deep. A m[ound] of earth is then piled up to the height of two feet, and from thr[ee to] four feet in diameter. It is next hollowed out into the shape [of a] bowl, plastered inside with clay, and furnished with a hole a[t]

bottom, covered with a layer of grass six inches thick. The salt-makers fill this bowl with saline earth scraped off the adjacent land, and pour the sea water on it from the top. By the end of six hours, the water has drained through into a pit at the bottom, and runs down a thatched trench towards a reservoir, whence it is transferred to the evaporators. These consist of 160 to 200 little unglazed earthenware pots, fastened together by stiff tenacious mud, and holding two quarts each. The neighbouring plains supply grass for the fuel. Six hours' boiling completes the process. The brine, which consisted in the first place of sea water charged to its maximum power of solution by percolating through the bowls of salt earth, subsides into dirty crystals at the bottom of the pots. It is then ladled out. The whole process is as rude and careless as can well be imagined. The total cost of manufacture is estimated at 2s. 3d. a cwt.; Government duty, 4s. per cwt. In 1881–82, the total amount of salt thus manufactured was 7448 tons, yielding a Government revenue of £40,552. In the neighbouring District of Purí, salt manufacture is carried on by means of solar evaporation, and a description of the process will be found in the account of that District. With the exception of salt-making, the only manufactures in Balasor worth mention are those of brass vessels, ornaments, and coarse cloth.

Trade.—The chief articles of import into the District are wearing apparel, cotton twist, piece-goods, and hardware among European goods, and of gunny-bags, cocoa-nut oil, *ghi*, drugs, and raw cotton, among Indian products. The principal export is rice, which in favourable seasons is despatched in enormous quantities, both by sea and land, the sea-borne trade having developed greatly of late years. Other exports—hides, jute, oil-seeds, and timber. The total value of the imports into the Balasor ports in 1880–81 was £416,952, of which £222,717 represented wearing apparel or European piece-goods or twist and yarn. The exports for the same year amounted to £473,320, of which £97,990 was for rice. The exports of rice in this year, however, were far below the average, which for the two previous years averaged about half a million sterling. In 1881–82, the imports were returned at £876,306, and the exports at £477,563 in value.

Administration.—The early records of the District have been destroyed; but so far as can now be ascertained, the separate expenditure in 1804 on the civil administration of Balasor, then a Sub-division of Cuttack, was £77, 18s. In 1880–81, the net revenue was £65,470, and the net civil expenditure, on officials and police, £14,008. The land revenue, which in 1830 amounted to £29,321, had in 1880 increased to £41,069. In 1804, there was 1 permanent officer and only 3 courts of all kinds in the District; in 1880–81 there were 12 courts. At the end of 1880–81, the regular police force

Soro. In 1880–81 it contained 12 magisterial and revenue cour regular police force of 348 men, and a village watch of 1190 men.

Balasor.—Town, chief port, and administrative head-quarters o District of the same name, Bengal; situated on the right bank of Burábalang river. About 7 miles from the sea in a straight line, about 16 miles by river. Lat. 21° 30′ 6″ N., long. 86° 58′ 11′ Population (1872) 18,263. Population in 1881, 20,265, compris 16,848 Hindus, 3068 Muhammadans, and 349 'others.' Area of to site, 5280 acres. The town has been constituted a second-class mu cipality under Act v. (B.C.) of 1876. Municipal income in 1880–8 £769; expenditure, £690. Among the articles of import are met (used for the manufacture of domestic utensils and ornaments), piec goods, cotton, twist, tobacco, gunny-bags, drugs, oil, sugar, seeds, et The chief export is rice. A description of the port, and an accou of the rise and history of the town, will be found in the article o BALASOR DISTRICT.

Balasor (*Banasura*).—An isolated peak, 6762 feet above th level of the sea, in the range of Western Gháts, in Malabár District Madras Presidency; situated 9½ miles south-west of Manántád (Manantoddy). Lat. 11° 41′ 45″ N., long. 75° 57′ 15″ E. Except on the lower portions, which have been cleared by the Mápilás (Moplas) for coffee cultivation, the peak is densely wooded.

Balcha.—Pass in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, on the Bashahr frontier, lying over the crest of the ridge between the basins of the Tons and the Pábar. Lat. 31° 4′ N., long. 78° E. Densely covered with *deodár* forest. Elevation above the sea, 8898 feet. Close to this pass rise two streams: one, the Chakár-ki-garh, flows west into the Kothígarh valley, near the Pabur river; the other, the Damrári-garh, flows into the Tons. There is excellent grazing ground for sheep in the neighbourhood.

Balcharí (*Bulcherry*).—Island in Lower Bengal, on the western side of the entrance to the Matlá (Mutlah) river, which it separates from the Jámirá. Lat. 21° 31′ to 21° 35′ N., long. 88° 31′ to 88° 37′ E.

Baldeva or **Baldeo.**—Village and place of pilgrimage in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 27° 24′ N., and long. 77° 52′ E. Population (1881) 2835. A modern town, so called from a famous temple in its centre, which is the daily resort of large numbers of pilgrims. A sacred bathing tank, the Khir Ságar or Ocean of Milk, is situated close to the temple. The ancient village was called Rirha, and now forms a suburb of the present town. Two annual fairs. Government school.

Báldiábárí.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal; distant about a mile and a half from Nawábganj. Lat. 25° 21′ N., long. 87° 41′ E. The scene of a battle between Shankat Jang, Nawáb of Purniah, and Siráj-ud-Daulá (Oct. 1756), in which the latter was completely victorious. Shankat Jang

was killed by a ball while attempting to escape from the field. The account given in the *Sair-ul-Mutákharín* is one of the best descriptions of a battle to be found in Muhammadan historians.

Baleswar River (*'Lord of Strength'*).—One of the principal distributaries of the Ganges; leaves the parent stream near Kushtiá in Nadiyá District, Bengal, where it is called the Garái. Thence flowing in a southerly direction, it soon assumes the name of Madhumatí (*'Honey Flowing'*). It enters Bákarganj District near its north-west corner at Gopálganj, and from this point it takes the name of Baleswar, and forms the western boundary of the District, still flowing south, but with great windings in its upper reaches. It then crosses the Sundarbans, separating the Jessor from the Bákarganj portion of that tract, and enters the Bay of Bengal under the name of Haringhátá (*'Deer Ford'*), forming a fine deep estuary 9 miles broad. The river is navigable as high up as MORRELLGANJ in the District of Jessor by sea-going ships, and throughout its entire course by native boats of the largest tonnage. Although there is a bar at the mouth of the Haringhátá with only 17 feet of water at low tide, the navigation is easier than that of any other river at the head of the Bay of Bengal. The great banks or shoals which have formed at each side of the mouth, and which extend seaward for several miles, protect the entrance, and act as breakwaters to the swell. The river is not disturbed by the 'bore,' which visits the Húglí and the Meghná, and it is also free from mid-channel dangers. Among its chief tributaries are the Kachá in Bákarganj, and the Bankana *khál*, Nabagangá, and Máchuákhálí in Jessor.

Bálí (1).—Town on the Dhalkisor river in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 48′ 50″ N., long. 87° 48′ 46″ E.; population (1881) 7037, comprising 6564 Hindus and 473 Muhammadans. A municipal union, with an income in 1881–82 of £135.

Bálí (2).—Market village on the right bank of the Húglí river, in Húglí District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway, seven miles from Calcutta (Howrah). Lat. 22° 39′ N., long. 88° 23′ E. Contains an academy for Hindu *pandits.* The village takes its name from a *khál*, or canal, 12 feet deep, running from here to the Dánkuní marsh west of Serampur station. A suspension bridge crosses the *khál* at Bálí.

Báliá.—Village in Dinájpur, Bengal, the site of an annual festival in honour of Krishna.—*See* ALAWAKHAWA.

Báliághátá.—Trading village on the Circular Road Canal, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 33′ 45″ N., long. 88° 27′ E. Principal trade—fine rice imported from Bákarganj and the Eastern Districts, and firewood.

Báliághátá.—Canal in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, extending from the old to the new toll-house on the Salt Water Lake, 5½ miles in length.

Báliganj.—Suburb of Calcutta.—*See* BALLYGUNGE.

Bálighatiam (*Bálighattam*). — Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, near which is a shrine of Siva as Brahmeswarúdu, of peculiar sanctity. Lat. 17° 39′ N., long. 82° 38′ 30″ E. The Swámí, or idol, contrary to usual custom, faces west instead of east. The river Panderu or Varáhánadí, which washes the rock on which the temple stands, flows for some distance from south to north. This combination of directions is particularly auspicious in Hindu estimation, and the shrine, under the name of *Uttara Vahini*, is held in great veneration. On the river bank is a small bed of pulverized shale, which, from its resemblance to ashes, is declared by the priests to be the site of a sacrifice performed by Bálichakravarti.

Balihrí.—One of the oldest towns in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 47′ 45″ N., long. 80° 19′ E.; pop. (1881) 2657, namely, Hindus, 2217; Muhammadans, 287; Jains, 151; and aboriginal tribes, 2. Formerly called Bábávat Nagárí, then Pápávat Nagárí, finally Balihrí, from the defeat here of a mythical Rájá Bal. Others connect the name with a variety of *pán* (Chavica betel); and even now the *pán* gardens are numerous and beautiful. In ancient times, Balihrí was a flourishing city, 24 miles in circumference. It lay on the main line of communication between the valleys of the Ganges and the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and contained hundreds of temples, to which pilgrims formerly flocked from all parts of India. It is not now, however, a place of pilgrimage. An inscription found in an old building shows that the town was an early seat of Jain worship. Balihrí, with the *parganá* of the same name, probably belonged to the kings of Mandlá, till in 1781 they fell into the hands of the Maráthá chief of Ságar (Saugor). In 1796 Balihrí was presented to the Rájá of Nágpur; and in 1817 was ceded by the Bhonslas to the British Government. During the Mutiny of 1857 the fort was occupied by a party of rebels under Raghunáth Singh, Bundelá; but they decamped on native troops being sent against the place. Soon afterwards the fort was entirely dismantled by order of Government. The present town is picturesquely situated among groves of mango and other trees, in a fertile country diversified by numerous hills. The large tank, fine old masonry wells, and many ancient remains are full of interest.

Bálípárá.—Forest reserve in the north-east of Darrang District, Assam. Lat. 26° 54′ to 26° 55′ N., long. 92° 51′ to 92° 52′ E.; estimated area, 56,224 acres, or 88 square miles, to which is attached a plantation of India rubber trees.

Bálirangan (*Biligiri-rangan*).—Range of mountains in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency, commencing in Mysore, and terminating at the Hussanúr Pass. Lat. 11° 40′ to 12° 10′ N., long. 77° 10′ to 77° 11′ E. The portion lying within the Madras Presidency consists of

a double range, the Coimbatore boundary being the western watershed of the Gundal river as far as Honnemetti; one part, running north and south, from lat. 11° 40′ to lat. 12° 10′ N., averages about 4500 feet above sea level, the highest peaks being on the eastern ridge and rising to 5300 feet; Bedúgiri, the southern peak, is 5000 feet high. The valley between the two ridges, which is heavily wooded and frequented by elephants, is watered by the Gundal and Honnuhole streams. The hills are uninhabited.—*See* BILIGIRI-RANGAN.

Balisna.—Town in Khádi Division, Baroda State, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5002, namely, males 2525, females 2477.

Balkh.—Province of Afghánistán.—*See* AFGHAN TURKISTAN.

Balkh.—City of Afghán Turkistán, Central Asia. Balkh properly lies beyond the scope of this work, but as it has much interest as a seat of ancient civilisation, the following description of it has been condensed from Colonel Macgregor's account. It should be borne in mind, however, that no official authority attaches to articles in the *Imperial Gazetteer* dealing with territory beyond the Indian frontier.

The City.—The famous and ancient city of Balkh has fallen to decay, and now consists of an old and new town. The ruins extend for a circuit of about 20 miles. They consist of fallen mosques and decayed tombs built of sun-dried brick, but there are no relics of an age prior to Muhammadanism. In its wide area the ancient city appears to have enclosed innumerable gardens, which increased its size without adding to its population; and from the frail materials of which its buildings are constructed, the foundations being only brick, it may be doubted if Balkh was ever a substantial city. There are three large colleges of handsome proportions now in a state of decay, with their cells empty; a mud wall surrounds a portion of the town, but it must be of recent construction, since it excludes the ruins on every side for about 10 miles. The citadel on the north side has been more solidly constructed. It is a square enclosure, with a turret at each corner, erected upon an artificial eminence; and this fortress, though entirely abandoned, is, as well as the mosques, colleges, and a long *bázár*, in very fine condition. Ancient Balkh stands on a plain about 6 miles from the hills, and not upon them as has been erroneously represented. There are many inequalities in the surrounding fields which may arise from ruins and rubbish. Forty years ago there still remained among the ruins many good houses; but when some of these fell down from the effects of rain, and exposed vases full of gold which had been concealed in the walls, the inhabitants of the south part proceeded to demolish everything that was left standing, in the hope of finding more treasure. In any case their trouble is not thrown away, for they sell the bricks to

those who are building in the modern town. New Balkh is open, with the citadel in the centre, and lies an hour's journey north from the old town. It is the residence of the governor. The population consists of about 10,000 Afgháns, and 5000 Uzbegs of the tribes of Kapchák and Sábu, with a few Hindus, and about 1000 families of Jews. The former are shopkeepers, the latter shopkeepers and mechanics. Both are subject to the *jaziyá*, or capitation tax on infidels; the Hindus are known by a painted mark on the forehead, the Jews by wearing a black sheepskin cap. The population of the old town does not exceed 2000. The people of Central Asia have a great veneration for this city. They call it Amm-ul-Belád, 'mother of cities,' and believe that it was one of the earliest peopled portions of the earth, and that its re-occupation will be one of the signs of the approaching end of the world. Outside the city is the grave of poor Moorcroft, who lies close to his comrade Guthrie.

The Country.—Many well-peopled villages are included in the government of Balkh, which is bounded by the Oxus on the north, and on the south by the chain of mountains running east and west, 15 miles from the town; in the other direction it extends from Bajar to Akchah. The territory of Balkh is noted for its fertility; water is abundant, and it only requires a numerous population to render it the most fertile in Asia. Even in its present state it is one of the most productive tracts in Turkistán, being able to furnish several Provinces with grain when their own crops are insufficient for their consumption. The fruit of Balkh is most luscious, particularly the apricots, which are nearly as large as apples. They are almost below value. When Burnes was there, 2000 were to be purchased for a rupee; with iced water they are indeed luxuries, though dangerous ones. Snow is brought in quantities from the mountains south of Balkh, about 20 miles distant, and sold at a cheap rate throughout the year. The climate of Balkh is very insalubrious, but not disagreeable. In June the thermometer does not rise above 80°, but July is the hottest month in the year. The unhealthiness is ascribed to the water, which is so mixed up with earth and clay as to look like a puddle after rain. The soil is of a greyish colour, like pipeclay, and very rich. The crops are good; the wheat stalks grow as high as in England, and do not present the stunted stubble of India. The wheat ripens in July, which makes the harvest fifty days later than at Pesháwar. In Balkh, the water has been distributed with great labour by aqueducts from the river; of these there are said to be no less than 18, but many are not now discoverable. They frequently overflow, and leave marshes, which rapidly dry up under the sun's rays. This seems to account for the diseases of the place, for it is not situated in a country naturally marshy, but on a gentle slope, about 1800 feet above the level of the sea, sinking

towards the Oxus. All the water of the river on which Balkh stands is lost long before reaching that stream.

History.—On the death of Nádir Sháh, Ahmad Sháh Durání gave the territories of Balkh to Hájí Khán, a soldier of fortune. His son succeeded him, but the inhabitants were encouraged to revolt by the Amír of Bokhára. Timúr Sháh Durání then marched an army and reduced the place. After his death, Sháh Murád of Bokhára laid siege to the city in 1793, but did not take it. From 1793 to 1826 Balkh remained under Afghán government. Murád Beg of Kúndúz held temporary authority for two years from 1826, when, being dispossessed by the Amír of Bokhára, he carried with him a large number of the inhabitants to people his territories to the east. Balkh was then placed under the government of a deputy of Bokhára named Eshán Khojá; about 1838 he was recalled, but Balkh still remained under Bokhára till 1841, when the Mír Walí of Khulm captured Balkh in the name of Sháh Shúja. At the desire of the British Resident he restored it. From this time to 1st February 1850, it is not clear under whose authority Balkh was, but it is probable that neither the Amír of Bokhára, nor the Walí of Khulm, did more than claim sovereignty over it, and the city was constantly threatened by both. In February 1850, Muhammad Akram Khán, Bárakzai, captured Balkh, and from that time to the present it has remained under Afghán rule.

Ballabgarh.—The southern *tahsíl* of Delhi District, Punjab; area, 388 square miles; population (1881) 138,878, of whom 108,291 are Hindus. Land revenue of the *tahsíl* (1883) £20,943. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, who preside over 1 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 129 men; number of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 280.

Ballabgarh.—Town in Delhi District, Punjab; head-quarters of Ballabgarh *tahsíl*, and former capital of a Native State; situated on the Muttra road, 21½ miles from Delhi city, in lat. 28° 20′ N., long. 77° 21′ 30″ E. The population, which in 1868 numbered 6281 persons, had in 1881, as shown by the Census, decreased to 5821, made up as follows:—Hindus, 4464; Muhammadans, 1320; and Jains, 37. Number of inhabited houses, 924. Originally held by Taga Bráhmans, but acquired by purchase or force about 1740 by a Ját adventurer, whose grandson, Ajít Singh, obtained the title of Rájá from Nawáb Najaf Khán. The Rájá's son, Bahádur Singh, was confirmed in his estates by Lord Lake, after the British conquest in 1803. He also acquired the *parganá* of Páli Pákal in 1805 as a grant for life, in return for police services on the Delhi and Palwál road; and this grant was continued to his successor up till the year 1827, when the Magistrate of Delhi undertook the management of the police. Rájá Náhar Singh, the

last of his line, rebelled in 1857, and was executed for his disloyalty, his estates being confiscated by the British Government. Contains a small but pretty palace, numerous temples, *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, and schoolhouse. Brisk trade in food grains with Delhi. The town is constituted a third-class municipality. Municipal income in 1880–81, £401; expenditure, £367.

Ballabhpur.—Suburb of Serampur, in Húglí District, Bengal. Two festivals connected with the god Jagannáth, which are celebrated with great pomp here and at the neighbouring village of Máhesh, attract large concourses. The first is the *Snán-játrá* or bathing festival, which takes place in May, and lasts only one day; the second and more important—the *Rath-játrá* (car festival)—is celebrated six weeks after the bathing of the idol. The god is brought out of his temple in Máhesh, placed upon a car, and dragged to Ballabhpur, a distance of about one mile. Here he is deposited in the temple of a brother god, Rádháballabh, where he remains for eight days, when the *ultá-rath* or return journey takes place, the god being escorted back to his temple in the same way as he was brought out. A large fair, held at Máhesh at the time of the festival, lasts eight days. Business is combined with pleasure, and a brisk trade is carried on. The religious ceremonial is confined to the first and eighth days, when the idol is moved to and brought back from Ballabhpur. On these days the crowd is immense, having been estimated on some occasions to amount to 100,000.

Ballálpur.—Village in Chándá District, Central Provinces; 6 miles south of Chándá town. Lat. 19° 50′ 45″ N., long. 79° 23′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 790. It was the seat of an early Gond dynasty, and foundations of the old city can still be traced for a considerable distance in the jungle. Within a handsome stone fort, partly rebuilt about 1800, stand the remains of the ancient palace, including two tunnels sunk in opposite directions, each leading to a set of three underground chambers. North of the village are the ruins of a large and elaborate tank. To the east is the tomb of a Gond king; and in an islet in the Wardha, in the same direction, there is an exceedingly curious rock temple, known as the Rám Tírth, which, during several months of the year, lies fathoms under water. A few hundred yards beyond the Rám Tírth, in the bed of the river, a seam of coal has been laid bare by the action of the current. The village is picturesquely situated. It is surrounded by ancient groves, and the Wardhá flows by in a deep, broad stream, between high and rocky banks. Police outpost.

Ballal-rayan-durga.—Mountain in the range of the Western Gháts, in Kadúr District, Mysore State; 4940 feet above sea level. Lat. 13° 8′ N., long. 75° 29′ E. Crowned by extensive fortifications, erected by a monarch of the Ballála dynasty (10th to 14th century).

Ballápali.—Forest reserve and timber depôt in Cuddapah District,

Madras Presidency. The most remunerative wood is the 'red saunder's root' (Pterocarpus santalinus), used for dyeing, first-class specimens yielding sometimes 900 per cent. profit on cost of production.

Ballia.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 39′ 30″ and 26° 13′ N. lat., and between 83° 41′ 23″ and 84° 40″ E. long.; with an area of 1144 square miles, and a population in 1881 of 924,763 persons. It was created on 1st November 1879 out of the eastern *parganás* of Gházípur and Azamgarh. Bounded on the north and east by the Gogra (Ghagrá), which separates it from Gorakhpur and the Bengal District of Sáran; on the south by the Ganges, which separates it from Sháhábád; and on the west by Azamgarh and Gházipur. The administrative head-quarters are at Ballia town.

Physical Aspects.—This District, part of the great plain of the Ganges, lies between that river and the Gogra, just above their confluence. It may be divided into two nearly equal parts—the modern alluvial formation, which lies along the banks of the rivers; and the older formation, inland from the rivers, comprising the western portion of the District, which is also an alluvium deposited in past ages under conditions which do not now exist. The older formation, or upland (though there is but a slight difference in elevation), is distinguished by its greater depth of soil, and by the invariable presence of *kankar*, a nodular carbonate of lime. Down the middle of this tract extends a long irregular piece of hollow land, deepening here and there into *jhíls*, and in the rainy season forming one continuous *jhíl*, which culminates in Tál Suraha, a perennial lake about 4 miles in diameter. This lake is connected with the Ganges by a narrow, deep, and tortuous channel, the Kathiar Nadí, which admits the Ganges floods in the rainy season, and drains the lake when the river falls again. The soil of this tract is generally whitish in appearance, and is much subject in parts to efflorescence of *reh*—an impure carbonate of soda, which creates barrenness in the soil. The modern alluvial tract is distinguishable into the older and the newer deposit—that which is seldom if ever inundated by the rise of the river even in unusual floods, and that which is as a rule submerged during the floods of the rainy season. The great rivers which wind their way through the new alluvial deposits which they themselves have formed, carry on a continual process of destruction and renewal. At every bend, one bank is being eroded, and the opposite shore is receiving a new alluvial deposit to fill up the void left by the receding river. The encroachment, at first violent and rapid, becomes more slow and gradual in the course of a few years, and finally ceases; and then the current changes over to the other side, which is in turn diluviated. Thus, a site which 40 years ago was on the south bank of the Ganges, was found 20 years later to be several miles to the south of the river,

and 20 years afterwards to be on the north bank. The alluvial tract is again distinguished according as it is created by, and subject to, the action of the Ganges or the Gogra—the alluvial deposit of the former river being remarkable for its fertility and productiveness, while that of the Gogra is sandy and unfertile, and peculiarly unstable. Besides the Ganges and Gogra, the only river in the District is the Lesser Sarju, an affluent of the Gogra, which branches off in Azamgarh District, and joins the Ganges a little way above the town of Ballia. It forms approximately the boundary between this District and Gházipur.

Ballia is well wooded, abounding in groves of mango trees. There is no jungle, and no waste lands except in the upland tract, the barren patches liable to efflorescence of *reh*, and in the lowland some stretches of grass jungle along the Gogra. There are some *nilgai* in the District, but no deer or other large game. The grass jungle gives cover to wild hogs. The density of the population, and the comparative absence of jungle, have long ago driven out all the larger carnivora, and there is now no animal fiercer than the jackal and fox. In other respects, the fauna of Ballia is similar to that of all other Districts of the North-Western Provinces.

History.—The present District of Ballia corresponds to no ancient territory of separate historical interest; and its history is therefore comprised in that of the parent Districts of Gházipur and Azamgarh. It should be noted, however, that *parganá* Doába formerly belonged to Sháhábád District in Bengal, and was transferred to the North-Western Provinces in 1818.

Archæology.—There is a singular absence of any buildings of note either ancient or modern. Here and there, notably at Pakka Kot and Waina, huge mounds exist, which in the case of Pakka Kot are partly faced with brick, and are the remains of old fortifications attributed by tradition to the Bhars and Cherus—the possessors of the country prior to its colonization by the Rájput tribes from the north-west.

Population.—Ballia supports a population of 924,763 persons, according to the Census of 1881, or an average of 808 to the square mile. It is the most densely populated District of the Próvince, except Benares, where the greater average density is due entirely to the inclusion of the large city of that name. Only 69,321 Muhammadans are returned, or 7½ per cent., which is a considerably smaller proportion than for the rest of the Province, and shows the slight extent to which the Muhammadan conquest affected the general population. The Muhammadan community holds a very small portion of the soil.

The Hindu population amounts to 855,410, of whom Rájputs number 131,126, and form the great land-holding class. Even where the proprietary right has passed from them during the English rule by auction sale or private transfer, they retain their hold on the soil

as privileged tenants holding at favourable rates. Each Rájput clan has its well-defined location, owning and cultivating that portion of the District which their forefathers conquered from the aboriginal tribes, or reclaimed from the waste. Thus, *parganá* Lakhneswar is held by the Sengars (population 17,139); Kopachit is divided between the Karcholias (10,410), the Kansiks (4955), and the Bisens (6352). The Birwars (7143), Naraunis (5707), Kunnwárs (4587), and Núikumbhs (3849) divide Kharid between them. The Donwars (7574), Bais (8108), and Barahias (7314) predominate in Sikandarpur, the Lohtumias (3742) in Doába, the Harihobans (2464) in Ballia. Most of the other clans, except those of small number, which are composed of recent scattered immigrants, hold their separate village or group of villages. Altogether, 69 clans were reckoned in the Census of 1881, excluding those composed of less than 100 persons. Bráhmans number 102,300, forming rather a larger proportion of the total population than is common. To a minor extent, the Bráhmans of this District are a land-holding class, but generally they hold as tenants at privileged rates rather than as proprietors. In manners, appearance, and customs they are scarcely to be distinguished from the Rájputs. Bhuinhars, a caste peculiar to the Benares Province, number 26,033. They are a kind of cross between Rájput and Bráhman, and, like them, are a predominant high caste and land-holding tribe.

Of low castes, although Chamárs (87,554) are the most numerous, the Bhars (58,147) are the most noteworthy, for they represent the indigenous population prior to Hindu colonization. Though classed as Hindus, the Bhars are outside the pale of Hinduism, and have their own peculiar traditions and religious rites modified, but not absorbed, by Bráhmanism. Another noteworthy caste is the Dosadhs, who have almost a monopoly of the post of village watchmen. This caste is most numerous in the eastern *parganá* Doába, and was notorious for the predatory habits of its members, who used to form gangs of dacoits for the purpose of raiding into Eastern Bengal; and this habit they have not yet left off entirely. The other Hindu castes present no particular feature of number or predominance calling for special mention.

The towns of the District containing over 5000 inhabitants, according to the Census of 1881, are:—Ballia (8798), Bansdih (9617), Reoti (9933), Maniyar (8600), Turtipar (6307), Rasra (11,224), Sahatwar (11,024), Bairia (9160), Sikandarpur (7027), Barágaon (10,847).

Agriculture.—The land revenue of the District is permanently settled, and the settlement was made with the land-holding clans of Rájputs, Bráhmans, and Bhuinhars. In the communities which engaged for the Government revenue, the proprietary right rapidly became much sub-divided, or passed away altogether by auction sale for arrears of

revenue, or in execution of decrees of the Civil Courts. In *parganá* Lakhneswar, held by the Sengars, there are as many proprietors as male members of the clan, and each proprietor has his holding scattered over several villages, and some have shares in each of the 134 villages of the *parganá*. On the other hand, a single proprietor, the Mahárájá of Dumráon, has largely added to his ancestral holding, and is now proprietor of nearly the whole of *parganá* Doába, and of half of *parganá* Ballia. Between these extremes, the land is held in every variety of tenure, and in areas more or less large by greater or smaller bodies of proprietors. The diversity in extent and complication of the proprietary rights only covers, however, a real uniformity in the nature of the agricultural holdings of the District. The land is held in small holdings mainly by members of the three chief castes above mentioned. Whether they pay rent to a proprietor or land revenue direct to the Government, or to one of their own body representing them before Government, is merely a detail affecting the amount of the profit they derive from the soil, and is not even a safe criterion of that. For the privileged tenants—the tenants at fixed rates, whose rent-rate cannot be enhanced—frequently pay less as rent for their land to the proprietor than in some villages is paid by the small proprietors as land revenue. Chiefly under these proprietors and privileged tenants, but to some extent independent of them, are the holdings of the lower cultivating castes—the Kachhis (called Koeris in this District) and others. In the methods of agriculture and in the crops grown, there is little special to this District. In the upland tract, in the hollow land, and along the *jhíls* or marshes, much rice is sown, and is entirely dependent upon the rainy season, as is also the success or failure of the ordinary *kharíf* crops. The *rabí* or winter harvest of wheat, barley, peas, etc., is largely protected by irrigation from wells and tanks, but in favourable seasons the winter rains suffice to mature an ordinary crop. In the alluvial tract the fertility of the soil and the certainty of the out-turn is much greater. Ballia has suffered from rainless seasons and drought, but has never experienced the extremity of famine. The low lands along the Ganges can scarcely ever fail to give their rich return to the easy labour of the husbandman; and where the floods of the river do not reach, water is readily found in shallow wells dug in the underlying sand, and is raised to the surface by the *dhenkal* or lever lift. Cotton is scarcely grown at all in Ballia, but the sugar-cane is a staple product in every village, and large quantities of sugar are annually made in the numerous factories which stud the District. Poppy is grown to a considerable extent, and occupies 6752 acres.

Owing to the great pressure on the soil from the density of population, to the reluctance to part with land characteristic of small proprietors, to the generally great productiveness of the land, and

to the very light assessment of the Government revenue, land in Ballia, for agricultural purposes merely, has a market value higher than in almost any other District. Rs. 200 per *bighá* (£30 per acre) is not an uncommon price, and double that price is far from being unprecedented.

Commerce and Trade.—Ballia and Sukul Chapra on the Ganges, and Belthra (Turtipar) and Moniar on the Gogra, are marts for river trade, exporting sugar and cereals, and importing rice, piece-goods, salt, etc. But Rasra is the chief place of trade, and is the great distributing centre of the District for imported articles, especially iron and spices, and for the collections for the export of grain, sugar, and fuller's earth. Some of the District trade finds its way by road to Gházipur and Buxar on the line of railway, but most is taken by boat to Patna, or even farther down the Ganges. Traffic is much impeded by the absence of good roads. There are no metalled roads at all, and in the rainy season wheeled traffic is for the most part impossible.

Administration.—The District staff consists of a Collector-Magistrate and two Deputy-Collectors. The civil and criminal jurisdiction is in the hands of the Judge of Gházipur. There are two *munsifs* located at Rasra and Ballia. The District is divided for fiscal purposes into the three *tahsíls* of Ballia, Rasra, and Bansdih.

The land revenue in 1881–82 amounted to £63,197, and the revenue from other sources, *i.e.* licence tax, local cesses, stamps, and excise, to £33,020—total, £96,217. There is one Municipality—Ballia town, which had in 1881–82 a revenue of £809; and there are eight towns under the Chaukídárí Act, which are assessed at £1256 for police and sanitary purposes only.

The total strength of the regular police for 1882 was 240 officers and men, and their cost was returned at £3534. There is no jail in Ballia, and prisoners are sent to the Gházipur jail. The District contains 13 Imperial and 1 local post-office, but no telegraphic communication. In 1882 there were 83 schools with a total of 2551 scholars, and the expenditure of the Educational Department amounted to £1046. There is one Anglo-vernacular school at Ballia; all the rest are elementary vernacular schools.

Sanitary Aspects.—The District is similar to the border Districts of Gházipur and Azamgarh in point of climate. The extremes of heat and cold are less than in the more Western Districts. The dry west winds are less prevalent, and the rainy season is longer and the rainfall more abundant. No record of temperature has been kept. The rainfall for three years—1880, 1881, and 1882—averaged 53·3 inches. The birth and death returns cannot be accepted as accurate, but according to them the births registered in 1882 amounted to 26·66 per thousand, and the registered deaths to 27·51 per thousand. To European consti-

tutions the climate is relaxing on the whole, but the natives of the District are rather above the average for physique and longevity. There are two dispensaries, one at Ballia and one at Rasra. [For full information regarding the newly-constituted District of Ballia, see the *Gazetteer for the North-Western Provinces;* the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces*, 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports*, 1880 to 1883.]

Ballia.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Ballia District, North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 39′ and 25° 46′ N. lat., and between 84° 5′ and 84° 40′ E. long., and forming a long narrow strip along the Ganges, with its eastern extremity enclosed between the Ganges and Ghagrá. The soil is of modern alluvial formation, and a great part is subject to annual inundation from the two rivers. Area, 372 square miles, of which 280 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 345,373, giving the unusual density for a purely agricultural tract of 929 to the square mile. This tract is remarkable for its fertility. Land revenue, £26,757, and, including local cesses, £30,067; rental paid by cultivators, £63,582; incidence of revenue, 3s. per acre. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 61 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 585.

Ballia.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Ballia District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 43′ 55″ N., long. 84° 11′ 5″ E. Area within municipal limits, 2484 acres, but these limits include the site of the great annual fair, and several villages adjacent to the town proper. The population of Ballia proper numbered (1881) 8798, namely, 7448 Hindus, 1349 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian. Including the neighbouring villages, the municipal population was 15,320. The municipality is administered by a committee of 15 members; municipal income in 1881–82, £809; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0¾d. per head. The modern town is situated on the north bank of the Ganges, a little below its confluence with the Lesser Sarju. The old town was cut away between the years 1873 and 1875, and a new town has been formed a little farther back from the river bank. The District offices consist of a *tahsíli*, civil court, police station, dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school. A great bathing fair, called Dadri, is held in November at the full moon of Kártik, and attended by numbers ranging from 200,000 to 400,000. In 1882, 60,000 head of cattle were brought to the fair, which is at its full height for 4 or 5 days. Revenue in 1882 from the fair, £587, including £350 for taxes. The nearest railway station is Dumráon, on the East Indian Railway, in the Bengal District of Sháhábád, distant 13 miles.

Ballygunge (*Báliganj*).—Suburb south-east of Calcutta, situated within the limits of the Suburban Municipality, and a station on the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway. There are a number of fine

houses occupied by Europeans; and the lines of the Viceroy's Body-Guard, consisting of brick-built ranges, with stables, are situated here. Police station.

Baloda.—Town in Biláspur *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2492, namely, Hindus, 1858; Kabír-panthís, 237; Satnámís, 103; Muhammadans, 178; aboriginal tribes, 116.

Bálotra.—Town in Jodhpur (Jodhpore) State, Rájputána, situated on the right bank of the Lúni; on the route from Balmer to Jodhpur city, 62 miles south-west of the latter. Lat. 25° 49′ N., long. 72° 21′ 10″ E.; estimated pop. (Thornton) 7275, viz. 6750 Hindus and 525 Muhammadans. Situated on the high road from Jodhpur to Dwárká, a celebrated place of pilgrimage in the west of Guzerát, a stream of pilgrims annually passes through the town. To supply their wants there is an excellent market, and abundance of good water is to be had from 125 masonry wells. A fair, lasting 15 days, and attended by more than 30,000 people, is held annually in March.

Balrámpur.—*Parganá* in Utraula *tahsíl*, Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Tulsipur *parganá*, on the east by Tulsipur *parganá* and Basti District, on the south by Utraula *parganá*, and on the west by Bahraich District. The country was conquered about the middle of the 14th century by immigrant Janwárs, who founded the great Ikauna Ráj. In the seventh generation from the original invasion, one of the Janwár chiefs separated from his brother, the Ikauna Rájá, and expelled a caste of carpenters who held a tract between the Rápti and Kuwána rivers. His son, Balrám Dás, founded the town of Balrámpur, and also gave his name to the estate. The small tract originally acquired was augmented by the conquest of neighbouring territory, although much of it was afterwards wrested from the Janwárs by the Patháns of Utraula, and the Bisens. One of the most celebrated Rájás of Balrámpur was Newal Singh, who succeeded to the estate in 1777. During his reign he was repeatedly engaged in hostilities with the Lucknow Court, and although often defeated by the King's troops, he was never subdued, and succeeded in keeping the assessment on his *parganá* at so low a rate as to amount to little more than a tribute. His grandson, the late Mahárájá, Sir Digbijai Singh, K.C.S.I., came into possession in 1836. During the earlier years of his rule, he was frequently engaged in warfare with the neighbouring chiefs of Utraula and Tulsipur, and also with the revenue officers of the King's Court. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, Digbijai Singh, alone of all the chiefs of the Division, never wavered in his allegiance. He sheltered the English officers of the District within his fort, and finally sent them in safety to Gorakhpur. This loyal behaviour exposed him to the hostility of the rebel Government, and a *farmán* from Lucknow divided his territories

among his old enemies of Utraula, Tulsipur, and Ikauna. A rebel force marched into the *parganá* to carry out the partition, but was called away elsewhere, without having effected its object. In the trans-Gogra campaign, which concluded the Mutiny, Rájá Digbijai Singh joined the British force, and remained with it till the remnants of the rebel army were finally driven into Nepál. As a reward for his distinguished loyalty, he was granted the whole of the confiscated *parganá* of Tulsipur, besides large estates in Bahraich District; 10 per cent. of the Government revenue on his ancestral estates was remitted, and a settlement in perpetuity granted to him. He also received the title of Mahárájá, and a Knight Commandership of the Star of India. The *parganá* is a large one, comprising an area of 395 square miles, and consists of three well-marked natural divisions. (1) The tract lying between the Rápti and Kuwána rivers, where the soil is generally a fair *dumát*, but poorly populated, and not under careful cultivation. (2) The *doáb* between the Rápti and Búrhi Rápti, which contains a few good villages, but frequently suffers from the floods of both rivers, which in many places join during the rains, leaving behind a barren, sandy deposit. Being higher at both extremities, the centre of this tract is occupied by an extensive grassy waste, which is for months under from 3 to 5 feet of water, and can only be reclaimed by the construction of expensive embankments. (3) The land to the north of the Búrhi Rápti, which is generally a fine clay, and well cultivated. Its most striking feature is the number of hill torrents by which it is intersected. Water exists everywhere near the surface, and is struck at an average depth of not more than 10 feet. Total area under cultivation, 191,451 acres, of which about 33,000 are under two crops; acreage under principal crops—winter rice, 45,640; autumn rice, 28,000; gram, 76,635; *masuri*, 2581; and wheat, 48,725. The tillage is not usually of a high class, and rents are almost always paid in kind. At the time of the Settlement operations in 1871–72, the Government land revenue demand was fixed in perpetuity at £23,709 (subject to a deduction of 10 per cent., as already mentioned), equal to a rate of 1s. 10¾d. on the whole area, or 2s. 4¾d. on the cultivated area. With the exception of a few small independent holdings, not amounting to ½ per cent. of the total area, the whole *parganá* is the property of the heirs of the late Sir Digbijai Singh. Population (1881), Hindus, 163,541, and Muhammadans, 24,793—total, 188,334, viz. 100,562 males and 87,772 females. The most numerous castes are Kúrmís and Ahírs. Kshattriyas are unusually scarce; a few scattered houses of the old aboriginal population of Bhars and Tharus yet remain; wandering, gipsy-like people, known as Siárkhawas, who live by hunting and in camps, are very common. The principal trading villages are Balrámpur and Mathura. Besides two unmetalled roads, the villages

are connected by rough cart tracks. Ferries are established at several points on the Rápti, and a stationary bridge of boats at Sisiá.

Balrámpur.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; situated on the north bank of the Suwáwan river, about 2 miles south of the Rápti, 28 miles from Gonda town. Lat. 27° 25′ 30″ N., long. 82° 13′ 50″ E. The largest town in Gonda District, and the residence of the Mahárájá of Balrámpur, the wealthiest of the Oudh *tálukdárs*. Population (1881) 12,811, namely, Hindus, 8639; Muhammadans, 4171; Christian, 1. Municipal income (1880-81) £343; expenditure, £420. Forty Hindu temples; 19 mosques. A handsome stone temple, dedicated to Bijleswari Devi, profusely carved by artists from Benares, has been recently completed. The *bázár*, which is new and commodious, consists of two cross streets, with the usual traders' shops. The Mahárájá's palace is an imposing pile, enclosing a large court, on one side of which are ranged the dwelling-houses and offices, and on the other the stables and outhouses. There is a daily *bázár*, and the market forms the centre of the rice trade of the surrounding country. Manufactures—cotton cloths, blankets, felt, knives, etc. Large school, liberally supported by the Mahárájá. Order is maintained, and conservancy enforced, by a town police force. Good hospital and dispensary maintained by the Mahárájá.

Bálsamand.—Village in Hissár District, Punjab; 15 miles south-west of Hissár. Population (1881) 2067, chiefly Jats; second-class police station. A few years ago Bálsamand was becoming of importance as an *entrepôt* for salt from Rájputána. A market was established, and several shops erected, principally by traders from foreign territory. The trade, however, was diverted from the town by the opening of the Rájputána railway.

Balsan (*Ghodna*).—One of the Punjab Hill States, lying between 30° 58′ 15″ and 31° 7′ 15″ N. lat., and between 77° 24′ 30″ and 77° 35′ 15″ E. long. Area 51 square miles; number of villages, 152; number of houses, 1297, of which 1263 are occupied; population (1881) 5190, namely, 2878 males and 2312 females; persons per square mile, 102. Hindus numbered 5166, and Muhammadans 24. The Ráná, Dhop Singh, is a Rájput. Sentences of death passed by him require the confirmation of the Superintendent of the Hill States and of the Commissioner of the Division; other punishments are awarded by the Ráná on his own authority. Balsan pays a tribute of £108 to the British Government, in commutation of an engagement to supply 30 *begars* or forced labourers. The State was originally a feudatory of Sirmúr (Sarmor). The estimated revenue of the Chief is £700.

Balsáne.—Village in the Pimpalner Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Possesses a well-preserved series of old temples and caves.

Balsár.—Town in Surat District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BULSAR.

Báltistán (more generally called Iskardoh, from the name of its chief town).—One of the administrative divisions of Kashmír, comprising the north and north-eastern portions of that State. Báltistán lies between the governorship of Gilgit on the west and Ladákh on the east.—*See* also ISKARDOH.

Baluá.—Trading village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 24′ 40″ N., long. 87° 3′ 1″ E. Recent changes in the course of the Kúsí have brought that river within 2 miles of Baluá. Principal trade—oil-seeds, collected from different parts of the District, and from Nepál and Tirhút, to be exported by the Kúsí to Calcutta. Chief imports—salt and piece-goods, which are sold to merchants from Nepál.

Balúchistán.—A tract of country, whose coast is continuous with the north-western seaboard of the Indian Peninsula; bounded on the north by Afghánistán, on the east by Sind, on the south by the Arabian Sea, and on the west by Persia. Although Balúchistán lies beyond the limits of British India, some account of it may be useful to those who consult this work. It would be unsuitable, however, that any appearance of official authority should attach to this account of a foreign State, which has been confined to materials already published. With the permission of General Sir W. H. Green (the author), and of Messrs. A. & C. Black (the publishers), the article on Balúchistán in the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* has been condensed in the following notice, as being the ablest concise account of the country which has yet been made available to the public. General Green kindly revised and made additions to this article for the first edition of the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*; and later information has been added in the present edition.

The frontier between Persia and Balúchistán, drawn by an English commission, sent out in 1870, under Sir F. Goldsmid, runs from Gwadar Bay (about 61° 36′ E. long.) northwards to lat. 26° 15′ N., when it turns eastward to the Nihing river, following which, north and east, to its sources, it passes on to about 63° 12′ E. long., afterwards resuming a northerly direction to Jalk. As thus determined, Balúchistán has an area of about 160,500 square miles. It extends from lat. 24° 50′ to 30° 20′ N., and from long. 60° 40′ to 69° 45′ E.; its extreme length from east to west being about 550 miles, and its breadth about 370.

The outline of the sea-coast is in general remarkably regular, running nearly due east and west, a little north of lat. 24° 46′, from Cape Monze, the extreme south-west promontory of Sind, to Cape Juni, near the river Dasht. It is for the most part craggy, but not remarkably elevated, and has in some places, for a considerable distance, a low sandy shore, though almost everywhere the surface becomes much higher inland. The principal headlands, proceeding from east to west, are Cape Monze

or Rás Muári, the eastern headland of Sonmiáni Bay; Gurab Singh; Rás Arúbah; Rás Nu, forming the western headland of Gwadel Bay; Rás Juni, forming the eastern point of Gwadar Bay, and Cape Zegin at its western extremity. There is no good harbour along the coast, though it extends about 600 miles; but there are several roadsteads with good holding-ground, and sheltered at several points. Of these the best are Sonmiáni Bay, Homára, at Gwadar. On the latter are situated a small town and a fort of the same name, and also a telegraph station of the Indo-European line.

History.—Of the early history of this portion of the Asiatic continent, little or nothing is known. The poverty and natural strength of the country, combined with the ferocious habits of the natives, seem to have equally repelled the friendly visits of inquisitive strangers, and the hostile incursions of invading armies. The first distinct account which we have is from Arrian, who, with his usual brevity and severe veracity, narrates the march of Alexander through this region, which he calls the country of the Oritæ and Gadrosii. He gives a very accurate account of this forlorn tract, its general aridity, and the necessity of obtaining water by digging in the beds of torrents; describes the food of the inhabitants as dates and fish; and adverts to the occasional occurrence of fertile spots, the abundance of aromatic and thorny shrubs and fragrant plants, and the violence of the monsoon in the western part of Mekrán. He notices also the impossibility of subsisting a large army, and the consequent destruction of the greater part of the men and beasts which accompanied the expedition of Alexander. At the commencement of the 8th century the country was traversed by an army of the Káliphate.

The country is inhabited by two distinct races, the Brahuí and Balúch. These are each divided into numerous classes; and although Balúchistán derives its name from the latter, the Brahuís are considered the dominant people, and from amongst them the rulers of the country are always selected. So marked is the social distinction between these races, that when the Khán assembles his tribes for warlike purposes, the Brahuí portion demand as a right wheaten flour for their rations, while the Balúch can only claim a much coarser grain called *joár.* The period of the arrival of either of the above races in the country is a matter of uncertainty, although many surmises have been offered, but it was probably several centuries ago. One of the numerous traditions most prevalent is, that the last Rájá of the Hindu dynasty, named Síwa, found himself compelled to call in the assistance of the mountain shepherds, to aid in repelling the attacks of certain marauders from the direction of Sind, who, under the leadership of an Afghán chief, threatened to attack the seat of Government. The mountain shepherds, under a chief called Kambar, having successfully performed

this service, and finding themselves more powerful than those who called them from their mountains, drove out the Hindu Rájá, when Kumbar formally assumed the sovereignty of the country. Whether the above story really recounts the origin of the Brahuí conquest, has yet to be decided; the Kumbaráni tribe, however, takes the precedence amongst all those to be found in the country.

The date of the arrival of the Balúch is equally obscure; but it is probably subsequent to that of the Brahuís. They themselves insist that they are of Arabic origin, and came from Aleppo, under the leadership of one Chákur; after whom some of the most prominent peaks, as well as passes, in the mountains inhabited by the Marrí and Bhúgti tribes are called, such as Chakír-ki-Marri and Chakír-ki-Tung. The above tribes, from their isolated position, and their marauding habits, have preserved their individuality better than have any others in the country. A tribe of Sheiks, called Kaiheri, who are located at the foot of the above mountains, and who claim to have arrived at the same time as the Balúch from Syria, possess a breed of horses showing unmistakeable signs of Arab blood.

Taking a general view of the original inhabitants of Balúchistán, we may conclude that they have, from a very early date, been reinforced by emigration from other countries, and from stragglers dropped from the hosts of the numerous conquerors, from Alexander to Nádir Sháh, who have passed and repassed through Balúchistán or its neighbourhood, on their way to and from India. Thus we find the Sáká tribe located on the plains of Gressia, on the borders of Mekrán, the ancient Gedrosia, and still farther to the west, the Dahuí. These tribes are on the direct line of Alexander's march; and we know that tribes of this name, from the shores of the Caspian, accompanied his army. In Saráwán we find the Sarpárá, and Pliny tells us that a tribe called Saraparæ resided near the Oxus. Further, on the Dasht-i-Bedaulat, a plain at the northern entrance of the Bolan Pass, we find the Kurds, a name, again, familiar as that of a celebrated and ancient nation. The names of many other tribes might be cited to support this view, but it would require too much space to follow up the subject. Both Brahuís and Balúchís are Muhammadans of the Sunní sect.

The history of the country after the accession of Kumbar, above referred to, is as obscure as during the Hindu dynasty. It would appear, however, that the sceptre was quietly transmitted to Abdullá Khán, the fourth in descent from Kumbar, who, being an intrepid and ambitious soldier, turned his thoughts towards the conquest of Kachh Gandáva, then held by different petty chiefs, under the authority of the Nawábs of Sind. After various successes, the Kumbaránís at length possessed themselves of the sovereignty of a considerable portion of that fruitful plain, including the chief town, Gandáva. It was during this

contest that the famous Nádir Sháh advanced from Persia to the invasion of Hindustán; and while at Kandahár, he despatched several detachments into Balúchistán, and established his authority in that Province. Abdullá Khán, however, was continued in the government of the country by Nádir's order; but he was soon after killed in a battle with the forces of the Nawábs of Sind. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Hájí Muhammad Khán, who abandoned himself to the most tyrannical and licentious way of life, and alienated his subjects by oppressive taxation. In these circumstances, Nasír Khán, the second son of Abdullá Khán, who had accompanied the victorious Nádir to Delhi, and acquired the favour and confidence of that monarch, returned to Khelát, and was hailed by the whole population as their deliverer. Finding that expostulation had no effect upon his brother, he one day entered his apartment and stabbed him to the heart. As soon as the tyrant was dead, Nasír Khán mounted the *masnad*, amidst the universal joy of his subjects; and immediately transmitted a report of the events which had taken place to Nádir Sháh, who was then encamped near Kandahár. The Sháh received the intelligence with satisfaction, and despatched a *farmán*, by return of the messenger, appointing Nasír Khán *beglerbey* of all Balúchistán. This event took place in the year 1739.

Nasír Khán proved an active, politic, and warlike prince. He took great pains to re-establish the internal government of all the provinces under his dominion, and improved and fortified the city of Khelát. On the death of Nádir Sháh in 1747, he acknowledged the title of the King of Kábul, Ahmad Sháh Abdáli. In 1758, he declared himself entirely independent; upon which Ahmad Sháh despatched a force against him, under one of his ministers. The Khán, however, raised an army and totally routed the Afghán general. On receiving intelligence of this discomfiture, the king himself marched with strong reinforcements, and a pitched battle was fought, in which Nasír Khán was worsted. He retired in good order to Khelát, whither he was followed by the victor, who invested the place with his whole army. The Khán made a vigorous defence; and after the royal troops had been foiled in their attempts to take the city by storm or surprise, a negotiation was proposed by the king, which terminated in a treaty of peace. By this treaty it was stipulated that the king was to receive the cousin of Nasír Khán in marriage; and that the Khán was to pay no tribute, but only, when called upon, to furnish troops to assist the Kábul army, for which he was to receive an allowance in cash equal to half their pay. The Khán frequently distinguished himself in the subsequent wars of Kábul; and, as a reward for services, the king bestowed upon him several Districts in perpetual and entire sovereignty. Having succeeded in quelling a dangerous rebellion, headed by his cousin Bahrám Khán, this able

prince at length died in extreme old age, in the month of June 1795, leaving three sons and five daughters. He was succeeded by his eldest son Máhmúd Khán, then a boy of about fourteen years. During the reign of this prince, who has been described as a humane and indolent man, the country was distracted by sanguinary broils. The governors of several Provinces and Districts withdrew their allegiance; and the dominions of the Kháns of Khelát gradually diminished, until they comprehended only a small portion of the Provinces formerly subject to Nasír Khán.

In 1839, when the British army advanced through the Bolan Pass towards Afghánistán, the conduct of Mehráb Khán, the ruler of Balúchistán, was considered so treacherous and dangerous as to require 'the exaction of retribution from that chieftain,' and 'the execution of such arrangements as would establish future security in that quarter.' General Willshire was accordingly detached from the army of the Indus with 1050 men, to attack Khelát. A gate was knocked in by the field-pieces, and the town and citadel were stormed in a few minutes. Above 400 Balúchís were slain, among them Mehráb Khán himself; and 2000 prisoners were taken. Subsequent inquiries, however, proved that the treachery towards the British was not on the part of Mehráb Khán, but on that of his *wazír*, Muhammad Hussain, and certain chiefs with whom he was in league, at whose instigation the British convoys were plundered in their passage through Kachh-Gandává, and in the Bolan Pass. The treacherous *wazír*, however, made our too credulous political officers believe that Mehráb Khán was to blame,—his object being to bring his master to ruin, and to obtain for himself all power in the State, knowing that Mehráb's successor was a child. How far he succeeded in his object history has shown. In the following year Khelát changed hands, the governor established by the British, together with a feeble garrison, being overpowered. At the close of the same year it was reoccupied by the British under General Nott. In 1841, Nasír Khán, the youthful son of the slain Mehráb Khán, was recognised by the British, who soon after evacuated the country.

From the conquest of Sind by the British troops, under the command of Sir Charles Napier in 1843, up to the year 1854, no diplomatic intercourse occurred worthy of note between the British and the chief of Balúchistán. In the latter year, however, under the Governor-Generalship of the Marquis of Dalhousie, General John Jacob, at that time political superintendent and commandant on the Sind frontier, was deputed to arrange a treaty between the Khelát State, then under the chieftainship of Mír Nasír Khán, and the British Government. This treaty was executed on the 14th of May 1854, and was to the following effect:—

'That the former offensive and defensive treaty, concluded in 1841

by Major Outram, between the British Government and Mír Nasír Khán, chief of Khelát, was annulled.

'That Mír Nasír Khán, his heirs and successors, bound themselves to oppose to the utmost all the enemies of the British Government, and in all cases to act in subordinate co-operation with that Government, and not to enter into negotiations with other States without its consent.

'That should it be deemed necessary to station British troops in any part of the territory of Khelát, they shall occupy such positions as may be thought advisable by the British authorities.

'That the Brahuí chief was to prevent all plundering on the part of his subjects within, or in the neighbourhood of, British territory.

'That he was further to protect all merchants passing through his territory, and only to exact from them a transit duty, fixed by schedule attached to the treaty; and that, on condition of a faithful performance of these duties, he was to receive from the British Government an annual subsidy of 50,000 rupees (£5000).'

The provisions of the above treaty were loyally performed by Mír Nasír Khán up to the time of his death in 1856. He was succeeded by his brother Mír Khudádád Khán, the present ruler, then a youth of seventeen years of age, who, however, did not obtain his position before he had put down by force a rebellion on the part of his turbulent chiefs, who had first elected him, but, not receiving what they considered an adequate reward from his treasury, sought to depose him in favour of his cousin Sher Dil Khán. In the latter part of 1857, the Indian rebellion being at its height, and the city of Delhi still in the hands of the rebels, a British officer (Major Henry Green) was deputed on the part of the British Government to reside as Political Agent with the Khán at Khelát, and to assist him by his advice in maintaining control over his turbulent tribes. This duty was successfully performed until 1863, when, during the temporary absence of Major Malcolm Green, then political agent, Khudádád Khán was, at the instigation of some of his principal chiefs, attacked, while out riding, by his cousin Sher Dil Khán, and severely wounded. Khudádád fled for safety to a residence close to the British border, and Sher Dil Khán was elected and proclaimed Khán. His rule was, however, a short one, for early in 1864, when proceeding to Khelát, he was murdered in the Gandává Pass; and Khudádád was again elected chief by the very men who had the previous year caused his overthrow, and who had lately been accomplices in the murder of his cousin. Since the above events, Khudádád has maintained his precarious position with great difficulty. Owing to his inability to govern his unruly subjects without material assistance from the British Government, his country fell into a state of chronic anarchy; and the provisions of the treaty of 1854 having

been broken, diplomatic relations were discontinued with the Khelát (or Balúchistán) State at the end of 1874.

Balúchistán soon commenced to feel the effects of the withdrawal of the support of the British Government. It sank into such disorder, that the Government of India found itself compelled to interfere. At the desire of the Balúch ruler and his feudatories, Captain Sandeman, accompanied by a strong escort of cavalry, infantry, and artillery, was sent, in April 1876, to Khelát, with a view to settle the disputes between the Khán and his chiefs, and to renew the friendly relations between the British and Balúch States. In due time he accomplished both objects; and in December 1876, it was arranged that the Khán of Khelát, with his principal vassals, should visit the frontier station of Jacobábád, in order to meet the Viceroy, Lord Lytton. At this interview, the Treaty of 1854, with certain articles added to it, was renewed on the 8th of December 1876 [*vide* Blue Book, No. 2.—Papers relating to the Treaty with Khelát, published 1877, pp. 314-316].

Their meeting was of the most satisfactory nature. The Khán felt that in future he would receive from the British Government, substantial aid in maintaining the peace of the country. A proposal frequently urged by former political officers, of forming a police for the protection of the traffic through the Bolan Pass, was sanctioned; and at the Khán's desire it was agreed that a British Agent should again permanently reside at his Court.

Subsequently, the Khán, with his principal chiefs, attended the Grand Darbár at Delhi, for the purpose of proclaiming the Queen Empress of India, on the 1st of January 1877.

On the Khán's return to Khelát, the British Agent received the title of Governor-General's Agent for Balúchistán, and he was further directed to station a portion of his escort at Quetta. In September 1878, Sher Ali, the Ruler of the neighbouring State of Afghánistán, refused to receive a British envoy, while he admitted one from the Emperor of Russia. In November of the same year, the British Government found it necessary to send an army into Afghánistán in three columns, one by the Khaibar Pass, one by the Kuram valley, and one by the Bolan Pass, *viâ* Balúchistán.

As soon as the Ruler of Balúchistán was made aware of the impending hostilities between the British and the Amír of Afghánistán, he at once placed at our disposal the resources of his country, sending his son and heir-apparent to accompany the General in command of the army passing through his dominions.

The territories of Balúchistán are now comprised under the following divisions:—Jháláwán, Saráwán, Khelát, Makrán, Lus, Kachh-Gandává, and Kohistán.

Physical Aspects.—Much of this country is unexplored; in describing

it, therefore, only an approximation to accuracy can be attained. It comprises seven Divisions or Provinces, viz. Kachh-Gandává, and the country of the Marrís and Búgtís on the north-east; Saráwán on the north; Jháláwán on the east; Lus on the south-east; Mekrán, occupying an extensive length of country, on the south; Kohistán, or the mountain country, on the west; and Khelát, in which is situated the capital of Balúchistán. The most remarkable features of this extensive country are its rugged and elevated surface, its barrenness, and its deficiency of water. The mass of mountains which forms the eastern boundary of that division of Balúchistán called the mountain territory, lying between the capital, Khelát (lat. 29° 1′ 38″ N., long. about 66° 39′ E.), and the plain country to the east of it, designated Kachhí or Kachh-Gandává, is composed of several parallel ranges of limestone rock, in close proximity to each other, having a general strike of north-north-east to south-south-west, and a breadth of about 55 miles. This range, a continuation of the Sulaimán, originates in Afghánistán, and enters Balúchistán north of the Bolan Pass in about 30° N. lat. and 60° 30′ E. long., under the name of Herbuí; and after throwing out a branch to the eastward, which touches the river Indus at Sehwán, terminates, under the designation of the Khirtári and Hálá mountains, at Cape Monze on the coast, west of Karáchi, in about 25° N. lat. and 66° 68′ E. long., thus having a total length of upwards of 300 miles. The highest mountain of this range is the Chehil Tan, bearing about north by east 85 miles from Khelát, and attaining an altitude of 12,000 feet above the sea. The western range of the Herbuí mountains in this portion of Balúchistán is barren and without timber, and scantily peopled with pastoral tribes of Brahuís, who emigrate to the plains of Kachhí on the approach of the winter months. The direction of the other mountain chains in the heart of the country are almost wholly unknown, with the exception of a few of the principal ranges. One vast chain stretches along the entire coast from the vicinity of Rás Júni on the west to the river Purálí on the east. Parallel to this range, and at a distance of about 70 miles north from it, another well-defined chain intersects Makrán and joins the Sarawání mountains near Bela. A third parallel range, called the Wushuti or Mue mountains, about 110 miles farther north from the last-mentioned chain, forms part of the northern boundary of Balúchistán, separating it from the great southern desert of Afghánistán. The other remarkable chains are the Bashkhird mountains, about 240 miles in length, and the Sarawáni mountains, stretching in a north-east direction.

North of the Bolan river and Pass the Herbuí mountains are met, in about 30° N. lat., by confused ranges of rough precipitous mountains, which extend to the eastward with a strike nearly east and west to the Sulaimán range, in about 29° 5′ N. lat. and 69° 30′ E. long. This tract

is almost entirely inhabited by Marrís, Búgtís, and other tribes of Balúch plunderers, and is bounded on the north by the Province of Sewestán (Seistán). South of these ranges lies the desert country, which touches the Sind frontier in 28° 27′ N. lat.

The rivers of Balúchistán are the Bolan, Rodbát, Lora, Shirináb, and Múlá in the north; the Habb, Sínámáni, Marwar, Nári, Urnách, and Puráli in the east; the Shádi, Mokúla, Bhasúl, Ghish, and Gashastán in the south; and the Dasht, Rakshán, Bhádo, Gwargo, Nihing, and Mashkhid in the west. The two principal water-courses which drain the Kohistán portion of Balúchistán east of Khelát are the rivers Bolan and Múlá, the former rising about 60 miles north-east of Khelát, the latter at Anjíra (lat. 28° 19′ N., long. 66° 29′ E.), about 45 miles south of that city. They both discharge themselves into the plains of Kacchi, the former at Dádar, lat. 29° 28′ 51″ N., long. 67° 26′ E., and the latter at Kotra near Gandává, lat. 28° 33′ 47″ N., long. 67° 26′ E. There is at all seasons a plentiful supply of clear running water in these streams, which is entirely used up for irrigation purposes on issuing into the plains. They are subject to dangerous floods from sudden storms in the neighbouring mountains during the rainy season. The two easiest and safest passes from Central Asia into India take their names from these streams. (*See* BOLAN and MULA.) South of the Múlá, the Gaj river issues into the plains, and its waters are also absorbed in cultivation. The Nári issues into the plains near Kajjak, on the north-west of Kachh-Gandává, in lat. 29° 36′ N., and long. 68° 2′ E.; ordinarily its water is utilized entirely for cultivation in its course through the Province of Sibi; but at periods of heavy rains in the mountains it is liable to burst its banks, and then it inundates immense tracts in the Kachhi desert to the south.

West of Khelát, as far as about 65° 30′ E. long., the mountain ranges have much the same strike, and are of the same nature as those to the eastward, but the ranges are much narrower, more defined, and of a lower altitude. The valleys between them vary from 5 to 15 miles in breadth; they are quite devoid of trees. The water-courses generally follow the direction of the hills, from north to south, and in some instances, during heavy rains, their waters reach the Arabian Sea; but as a general rule they are absorbed long before they reach the coast, partly in cultivation, but principally by the sandy arid nature of the soil and excessive dryness of the atmosphere, due probably to the proximity of the great desert on the north-west of Khárán, which extends to the confines of Persia. This desert is quite impassable in summer owing to the sand-storms, when the wind is so scorching as utterly to destroy animal life.

Climate, Productions, etc.—The climate of Balúchistán is extremely various in the different Provinces, and runs to extremes. The cold

during winter is exceedingly severe, snow lying on the ground for two months at a time, even in the fertile valleys, while in summer the heat is overpowering on the lower grounds. Some parts of Makrán are said to be the hottest localities in Asia. In February and March a good deal of rain falls, after which the dry season commences and lasts till September. The soil in general is exceedingly stony. In the Province of Kachh-Gandává, however, it is rich and loamy, and so productive, that, it is said, were it all properly cultivated, the crops would be more than sufficient for the supply of the whole of Balúchistán; water, however, is very scarce, except at certain seasons of the year, when the floods descend from the hills. Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, tin, antimony, brimstone, alum, sal-ammoniac, and many kinds of mineral salts, and saltpetre, are found in various parts of the country. The precious metals have only been discovered in working for iron and lead, in mines near the town of Nal, about 150 miles south-south-west of Khelát. The manufactures of Balúchistán are unimportant, being confined to a few matchlocks and other arms at Khelát. The gardens and orchards in the vicinity of the towns produce many sorts of fruit, which are sold at a moderate rate, such as apricots, peaches, grapes, almonds, pistachio-nuts, apples, pears, plums, currants, cherries, quinces, figs, pomegranates, mulberries, plantains, melons, guavas, etc. All kinds of grain grown in India are cultivated in the different Provinces of Balúchistán, and there is abundance of vegetables. Madder, oil-seeds, rice, tobacco, cotton, and indigo are also produced; the latter is considered superior to that of Bengal. Great attention is given to the culture of the date fruit in the Province of Makrán. On the coast fish are caught in great quantities. The domestic animals of Balúchistán are horses, mules, asses, camels, buffaloes, cattle, sheep, goats, dogs, and cats, besides fowls and pigeons; but there are neither geese, turkeys, nor ducks. The wild animals are tigers, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals, tiger-cats, wild dogs, foxes, hares, mongooses, mountain goats, antelopes, *márkhor* (*Capra megaceros*), ibex (*Capra ægagrus*), wild sheep or *gudd* (*Ovis cycloceros*), wild asses, etc. Of birds there are many European and Central Asian species, and also a few Indian.

Towns.—The principal towns in Balúchistán are as follows:—Khelát, the capital of the whole country; Mastang, of the Province of Saráwán; Kozdár, of Jhaláwán; Bela, of Bela; Kej, of Makrán; Bágh, of Kachh-Gandává; Dádar and Gandává, towns in the last-mentioned Province; Nushki, Saráwán, Pasni, Derá, Sonmiáni, and Quetta. The inferior towns are Sohráb, Sháh Godar, Cháhgeh, Diz, Tump, Sámi, Khárán, and Zehri-Gat.

KHELAT forms the subject of a separate article; but as the dimensions of this work involve a considerable interval between the publication of the earlier and later volumes, it may here be convenient to give

a brief description of the town. Khelát, the capital of Balúchistán, stands on an elevated site 6783 feet above the sea, on the western side of a well-cultivated plain or valley, about 8 miles long and 2 or 3 broad, a great part of which is laid out in gardens and other enclosures. The town is built in an oblong form, and on three sides is defended by a mud wall, 18 or 20 feet high, flanked at intervals of 250 yards by bastions, which, as well as the wall itself, are pierced with numerous loopholes for matchlock-men. The defence of the fourth side of the city has been formed by cutting away perpendicularly the western face of the hill on which it is partly built. On the summit of this eminence stands the palace, commanding a distinct view of the town and adjacent country. That quarter of the hill on which the Khán's residence is erected has been enclosed by a mud wall, with bastions; the entrance to it is on the south-western side; and here, as well as at the city gates, which are three in number, there is constantly a guard of matchlock-men. Both town and citadel are, however, completely commanded by the surrounding hills, and are incapable of offering any resistance against artillery. Within the walls there are upwards of 2500 houses, and the number of those in the suburbs probably exceeds one-half of that amount. The houses are mostly built of half-burnt brick or wooden frames, plastered over with mud or mortar. In general, the streets are broader than those of native towns, and most of them have a raised pathway on each side for foot-passengers, and also an uncovered kennel in the centre, which is a nuisance, from the quantity of filth thrown into it and the stagnant rain-water that lodges there. The upper storeys of the houses frequently project across the street, and thereby render the part beneath them gloomy and damp. This seems a rude attempt to imitate the *bázárs* of Persia and Kábul. The *bázár* of Khelát is extensive, well furnished with every kind of goods; all the necessaries of life may be purchased there at a moderate price. The town is supplied with delicious water from a spring in the face of a hill on the opposite side of a plain, whence it meanders nearly through its centre, having the town and suburbs on one side, and on the other the gardens. It may be remarked of this spring that the waters, at their immediate issue from the smaller channels, possess a considerable degree of tepidity until after sunrise, when they suddenly become exceedingly cold, and remain so during the day.

Population.—We have no data from which to form an accurate computation of the population of Balúchistán, but it may be estimated at about 400,000. The two great races of Balúch and Brahuí, each sub-divided into an infinite number of tribes, are clearly distinguished from each other by their language and appearance. The Balúch, or Balúchki, language partakes considerably of the idiom of the modern Persian, although greatly disguised under a singularly corrupt pronun-

ciation. The Brahuíki, on the other hand, has nothing analogous to Persian, but appears to contain a great number of ancient Hindu words, and, as it strikes the ear, bears a strong resemblance to the dialect spoken in the Punjab. As regards personal appearance, the Balúchís in general have tall figures, long visages, and raised features; the Brahuís, on the contrary, have short, thick bones, with round faces and flat lineaments, with hair and beards frequently brown.

The Balúchís (Balúch and Brahuí) are a handsome, active race of men, not possessing great physical strength, but inured to changes of climate and season, and capable of enduring every species of fatigue. In their habits they are pastoral, and much addicted to predatory warfare, in the course of which they do not hesitate to commit every kind of outrage and cruelty. Notwithstanding their predatory habits, however, they are considered to be a hospitable people. After the fashion of other barbarous tribes in that part of the world, they will protect and kindly entertain a stranger while their guest, but feel no scruple in robbing and murdering him as soon as he has left their precincts. They are indolent, and unless excited by amusement or war, or compelled to action by some urgent motive, spend their time in idleness, rude dissipation, and the enjoyment of such coarse luxuries as they can procure—in lounging, gambling, smoking tobacco or hemp, and chewing opium. The tenets of their religion, and still more, perhaps, their poverty, preserve them from the abuse of fermented liquors. Their principal articles of food are milk in all its forms, the flesh of domestic animals, not excepting that of the camel, and game, including wild asses, the flesh of which is considered a delicacy. Their appetites are voracious; they consume incredible quantities of flesh when it can be obtained, and prefer it in a half-cooked state. They also use grain in the form of bread, and prepared in various other ways; but they enjoy most such articles of food or condiment as possess a strong and stimulating flavour, as capsicum, onions, and garlic. Their indolence prompts them to keep as many slaves as they can obtain and support. Polygamy is universal. Some of the lower orders have as many as eight women, either as wives or concubines, and the number is increased in proportion to the rank and means of the man. Wives are obtained by purchase, payment being made in cattle or other articles of pastoral wealth. The ceremony of marriage is performed by the *mullah* or priest; and on this occasion, as well as on some others affecting females, practices similar to those of the Levitical law are observed. For instance, in this country, as also among the Afgháns, a man is expected to marry the widow of a deceased brother. When a death takes place, the body is watched for three successive nights by assembled friends and neighbours, who

spend their time in feasting, so that the ceremony seems intended rather to furnish enjoyment to the living, than to render honour to the dead.

The common dress of the Brahuí is a coarse white or blue calico shirt, buttoned round the neck, and reaching below the knee; their trousers are made of the same cloth, or of a kind of striped stuff called *súsi*, and puckered round the ankles. On their heads they wear a small silk or cotton-quilted cap, fitted to the shape of the skull, and a *kammar-band* or sash, of the same colour, round their waists. The Balúchís wear a similar dress, but a turban on the head, and wide trousers unconfined at the ankle. In winter, the chiefs and their relatives appear in a tunic of chintz, lined and stuffed with cotton; and the poorer classes, when out of doors, wrap themselves up in a surtout made of cloth, manufactured from a mixture of goats' hairs and sheep's wool. The women's dress is very similar to that of the men; their trousers are preposterously wide, and made of silk, or a mixture of silk and cotton.

The fluctuation of power renders it difficult to define precisely the nature of the government of Khelát. During the reign of Nasír Khán the whole kingdom might be said to have been governed by a complete despotism; yet that ruler so tempered the supreme authority by the privileges granted to the feudal chiefs within their own tribes, that, to a casual observer, it bore the appearance of a military confederation. The tribes all exercise the right of selecting their own *sardár*, or head. The Khán has the power of confirming or disapproving of their nomination; but this power is never exercised, and appears to be merely nominal. The Khán of Khelát declares war, and makes treaties connected with the whole of Balúchistán, and can order the *sardár* of each tribe to attend in person with his quota of troops. Agreeably to a code of regulations framed by one of the earliest princes of the Kumbaráni dynasty, the entire administration of justice is vested in the person at the head of the government. Each *sardár*, however, has the power of adjusting petty quarrels, thefts, and disputed points of every description, among the inhabitants of a *khel* or society; but, in all cases of importance, an appeal lies in the last instance to the Khán at Khelát.

Revenue and Military Resources.—The amount of revenue enjoyed by the Khán of Khelát is inconsiderable, as the ruling races, Balúch and Brahuí, pay no direct taxes, and their poverty and simple habits prevent them from contributing much indirectly. His income is therefore derived from his resources as a proprietor of lands or towns; from a proportion of the produce paid in kind by the Afghán, Dehwar, and Ját cultivators; from dues on local and transit trade; and from arbitrary exactions, a never-failing mode with Eastern potentates of

recruiting an exhausted treasury. Pottinger estimated the amount at £35,000; Masson, who had ample means of acquiring information through colloquial channels, at £30,000. At the present date (1882) it is 300,000 rupees, or £30,000, at the utmost. With such a revenue it is obvious that no standing army can be maintained; and Masson, certainly very competent to the task of acquiring information on this subject, states that Mehráb Khán, 'nearly destitute of troops in his own pay, was compelled, on the slightest cause for alarm, to appeal to the tribes, who attended or otherwise as suited their whims or convenience.' Pottinger computed the number of available fighting men at 60,000. Mehráb Khán could on no occasion assemble more than 12,000, and in his final struggle for power and life, the number of his troops did not amount to 3000. At the present time, about 40,000 would probably be available, if all attended the summons, but the utmost number the Khán could collect would be about 10,000. All depends upon the state of the treasury, the cause of the war, and the power the Khán may be able to exert over his chiefs. The Balúch soldier is heavily encumbered with arms, carrying a matchlock, a sword, a dagger, and a shield. Pottinger considered them good marksmen, and states that in action they trust principally to their skill in this respect, avoiding close combat; but their readiness in general to close with the British troops, shows that he was in this instance mistaken. There were no Brahuís opposed to our forces at the battle of Meeanee (Miáni), nor were there any Balúchís from Balúchistán. The levies of the Amír of Sind were principally composed of Sindí and Balúch tribes, who had long been settled in Sind. The greater part serve on foot; but a not inconsiderable number have horses. Camels are only used by tribes on the western borders of Balúchistán in their predatory excursions.

Bámanbor.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 4 villages, with one independent tribute-payer. Lat. 22° 24′ N., long. 71° 6′ E. Estimated revenue in 1876, £210; a tribute of £7, 12s. is paid to the British Government. Chief village, Bámanbor.

Bámanghátí.—The northern Division of Morbhanj, one of the Orissa Tributary States under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, comprising 702 villages, 23,861 houses, and a population in 1881 of 129,368 persons, of whom 32,951 were Hindus, 2862 Muhammadans, 61 Christians, and 93,494 aboriginal tribes, chiefly Santáls and Kols. Bámanghátí was for many years under direct British management, the supervising officer being the Deputy-Commissioner of Singbhúm. This was necessitated by a peasant rebellion, brought on by the oppression of the aborigines at the hands of the Hindu land-stewards and petty officials of the Rájá. In 1878, it was restored to the chief; but on his death in 1882, it again passed

under British management with the remainder of the State, during the minority of the new chief, a child.

Bámani.—Mountain peak near Ráyabigi, in the Jaipur (Jeypore) Estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; height, 2488 feet. Lat. 19° 35′ N., long. 83° 40′ E.

Bamauri.—Village in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 29° 13′ N., and long. 79° 35′ E.; on the route from Bareilly (Bareli) to Almora, 42 miles south of the latter; elevation above the sea, 1700 feet.

Bamhangáon.—*Zamindári* or estate in Burhá *tahsíl*, Bálághát District, Central Provinces; area, 8 square miles; 5 villages; occupied houses, 378. Population (1881) 1728, namely, males, 870, and females, 858.

Bamní.—Town in Mandlá *tahsíl*, Mandlá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2400, namely, Hindus, 1560; Kabírpanthís, 551; Muhammadans, 125; Christians, 14; aboriginal tribes, 150.

Bamniáwás.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore), native State of Rájputána. Population (1881) 6125.

Bamoní.—Town in Rangpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 6895, namely, Hindus, 5146, and Muhammadans, 1749; area, 4839 acres.

Bámrá.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 8′ 30″ and 22° 11′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 10′ 15″ and 85° 15′ 30″ E. long. On the north it runs up into a point between the Bonái and Gángpur States; on the south it is bounded by the State of Rairákhol; on the east by Tálcher and Pal Laherá in Orissa; and on the west by Sambalpur; extreme length from north to south, about 75 miles; extreme breadth, about 64; area, 1988 square miles; population (1881) 81,286.

Physical Aspects.—To the south, Bámrá is broken up by hills and covered with jungle, but the regions in the north-west and centre are particularly fertile. The soil is light and sandy, becoming more loamy in the neighbourhood of the hills. The only river of importance is the Bráhmaní, which flows through the eastern part of the State from north to south; and but for one or two rocky obstructions, timber might be floated down this river to the sea-coast of Orissa. The magnificent *sál* forests are comparatively valueless, for want of means to get the timber to a market. Iron ore is found in abundance, and the jungles produce a considerable quantity of lac, silk, cocoons, bees-wax, and honey. Resin is also extracted from the *sál* tree.

History.—Bámrá was formerly subject to Sargúja, but was added to the Garhját cluster of States in the 15th century by Balrám Deva, the first Rájá of Sambalpur. The ruling family claim to be Gangá-bansí Rájputs. Their traditions, however, do not extend beyond the middle of the 16th century, when it is said that Rám Chandra Deva was Rájá.

From him ten successions are deduced to the present chief, Sudhat Deva, who is now (1883) thirty-four years of age, and has a son.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the population of the State at 53,613, which in 1881 had increased to 81,286, or by 51·61 per cent. over the same area (1988 square miles in both years). This increase, however, is more apparent than real, being due to a great extent to imperfect enumeration in 1872. The male population in 1881 numbered 41,761, and the female 39,525. Number of villages, 632; number of houses, 14,828; average persons per square mile, 40·9; houses per square mile, 7·46; inmates per house, 5·48. Population classified according to sex—males, 41,761; females, 39,525; according to age, the male children under 14 years numbered 3024; the female children under 14 years, 2410. Hindus numbered 50,592; Muhammadans, 68; aboriginal tribes, 30,626. The most numerous of the aborigines are the Kols, the Gonds, the Kandhs, and the Bhuiyás.

Division into Town and Country.—In 1881, only 1 town exceeded a population of 1000, and 14 numbered from 500 to 1000 inhabitants; townships from 200 to 500 inhabitants, 111; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 506. Of the total area of 1988 square miles, only 600 are under cultivation, and of the portion lying waste, 580 are returned as cultivable. The one important crop is rice; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also cultivated. Of the jungle produce, lac deserves mention. The internal trade of Bámrá has been little developed. Besides agriculture, the only industry of importance is weaving. Of artisans, blacksmiths form the most numerous class. Commercial progress, however, cannot be expected until the country is opened up by means of communication. An old road to Calcutta, now fallen into disuse, runs through from west to east. With this exception, there is not a single made road in the State. Nor are there greater facilities for water traffic. It would be possible to float timber down the Bráhmaní (the only important river in the State) to the coast, and so to turn to account the magnificent *sál* forests of Bámrá, but for certain rocky obstructions, which render navigation impossible at certain parts of its course. With improved means of transit, the wealth of Bámrá in timber and in iron ore may some day become available. Bámrá pays a tribute of £35, out of an estimated gross revenue of £1600; no military force is maintained. Education is still very backward, and what exists has been created by the efforts of the last few years.

Bamsáru.—Pass in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, over the Jamnotri range, which separates the valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná). Lat. 30° 56′ N., long. 78° 36′ E.; elevation above the sea, 15,447 feet; summit reaches the limit of perpetual snow.

Banaganapalli.—Estate in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 2′ 30″ to 15° 28′ 50″ N., long. 78° 1′ 45″ to 78° 25′ 30″ E.; present area, 255 square miles, though formerly nearly 500; population (1881) 30,745, being 5952 Muhammadans (chiefly Sunnís) and 24,793 Hindus, of whom more than half belong to the cultivating and shepherd castes. Bounded by the Koilkántla, Nandiál, and Pattikonda *táluks;* the estate comprises the western half of the basin of the Kunder, and is also watered by the Jareru river. It contains 64 towns and villages, of which Banaganapalli, the capital, has a population of 2822, and nine others over 1000. Of the whole area, only 62 square miles (39,413 acres) are waste, the rest of the estate being under cereals, cotton (of which the cultivation is annually increasing), and indigo. There are no forests, and the waste lands supply pasturage. The trade consists almost entirely of the interchange of local produce, but at the markets, cotton and silk cloths, chintz, and lacquered wares—products of local industry—are sometimes collected for exportation. Eighty years ago, copper mines were worked, and near Banaganapalli there are diamond pits, yielding annually stones to the value of a few pounds. The estate has no railway or first-class road; the few schools are of the most primitive type, and endowed charities do not exist. The annual revenue amounts nominally to £22,464; but of this sum two-thirds are drawn by 18 minor *jágírdárs*, relatives of the Nawáb, and the remainder, after deducting £5341 for expenses of the palace and administration, does not suffice to meet the interest accruing on the debts inherited from his father by the present chief. Owing to the unruly character of the leading *jágírdárs*, the Nawáb is unable to restore his finances by increased taxation. More than half of the whole estate has passed from his hands to other members of his family; but out of the 18 alienations thus existing, 9 might be resumed, if the Nawáb exercised his privilege of refusing the right of adoption to the females at present holding the estates. Of the others, 4 are held by courtiers of the Nizám, who consider themselves so far independent, that they refuse to pay the road cess, and resent any interference in their affairs. The land revenue is farmed, the villages being assigned by auction to the highest bidder, and the farmer sub-lets the lands to the cultivators. The tenant therefore holds at will only, and is liable at all times to enhancement of rent, without the option of relinquishing his holding. Historically, the estate has but little interest. It was granted in the 17th century by the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb to Muhammad Beg Khán, eldest son of his Wazír, in whose family it remained for three generations. The chief dying without male heirs, the estate was given by the Nizám (1764) to the ancestor of the present owner. In 1800, the suzerainty was transferred by the Nizám to the British Government; and, in consequence

of local disorder, the estate was administered by the Collector of Cuddapah from 1825 to 1848. In the latter year it was restored, the Governor of Madras renewing the previous grants, and conferring larger civil and criminal powers upon the chief, who now holds the title of Nawáb, bestowed upon him in 1876, on the occasion of the visit of the Prince of Wales to the Madras Presidency. The rule of primogeniture is followed, and in the absence of male issue the nearest relation succeeds. Transit duties are not levied in the State.

Banaganapalli.—Chief town in the Banaganapalli estate, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency; situated 250 miles from Madras, and 90 from Bellary. Lat. 15° 15′ N., long. 78° 20′ E.; population (1881) 2822. As the head-quarters of the estate, the Nawáb's courts, jail, and treasury are situated here. The town lies in a plain near the mouth of a gorge, a stream from the hills flowing through its streets. About half a mile distant are the diamond mines, situated in a deposit of *breccia* underlying compact limestone. They would seem to be nearly worked out, for though in the 18th century they yielded large returns, the best stones found between 1800–1850 were valued at £30, and even these were only exceptional. Since 1850, the diamond washers have fallen off greatly in number, and those who continue at the mines procure only a bare subsistence.

Banás (*'Hope of the Forest'*).—A river of Rájputána. Rises in the Arávalli range (lat. 25° 7′ N., long. 73° 35′ E.) in Udaipur (Oodeypore), about 3 miles from the old fortress of Kúmalgarh; flows south until it meets the Gogunda plateau, when it turns eastward, and cutting through the outlying ridges of the Arávalli Hills, bursts into the open country. Here on its banks is situated the Vaishnava shrine of Irathdevára; farther on it flows north-east, across Mewár (the middle country) proper, collecting the greater part of the drainage of the Udaipur (Oodeypore) valley and the waters flowing from the south-east slopes and hill tracts of the Arávallis. It joins the Chámbal (lat. 25° 54′ N., long. 76° 50′ E.) a little beyond the north-east extremity of Bundi (Boondee) State, after a course of about 300 miles. Chief affluents in Mewár—the Berách and the Kothesri from the Arávallis, and the Dhúnd from the Jaipur (Jeypore) country. Where the Banás strikes through a small picturesque group of hills at Rájmahál, there is some fine scenery, and here its waters are very clear and pure; but though the bed in the upper part of its course is hard and rocky, it abounds in dangerous quicksands lower down. The Rájputána-Málwa State Railway crosses it at Hamírgarh in Mewár.

Banás.—River of Sháhábád District, Bengal. At first it is merely a spill channel from the Son, which it leaves near Beltá village; as it proceeds northwards, it becomes the drainage channel between the Arrah Canal and the Bihiyá branch of the Son Canal system. After

passing under the railway between Arrah and Bihiyá, it turns to the east, and finally falls into the Gangí *nadí*. It contains very little water, except during the rains.

Banás.—River of Chutia Nagpur, Bengal. Rises in the range of hills which separates Chāng Bhakár from Koreá State; flows in a westerly direction through Cháng Bhakár until it takes a bend to the north, following the boundary line of the State, which it leaves at its north-west corner, and passes into Rewá. It is a hill stream, with rocky bed and frequent rapids; there is no traffic.

Banása.—Village in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), 7 miles below its source, at the confluence of the Banása torrent. Lat. 30° 56′ N., long. 78° 27′ E. Picturesquely perched on a natural ledge of rock, with other ledges rising above. Hot springs abound in the neighbourhood. Overwhelmed and half destroyed by the fall of a precipice in 1816.

Banávar (*'Arrow-bearing'*?).—*Táluk* in Kadúr District, Mysore Native State; enlarged in 1875 by the addition of Kadúr *táluk*, and now contains 6 Hoblís, with 440 primary and 171 secondary villages. Area, 467 square miles; population (1881) 76,384; land revenue (1874–75), exclusive of water rates, £11,507, or 5s. per cultivated acre. Hindus form the bulk of the population, of whom 36 per cent. are agriculturists.

Banávar.—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore Native State; 30 miles east of Chikmagalúr. Lat. 13° 24′ N., long. 76° 14′ E.; population (1881) 2110; municipal revenue (1874–75) £64; rate of taxation, 7d. per head. Formerly the capital of a Jain principality, and now the head-quarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Banavási (*Bannawasi*).—Town in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the banks of the Warda river, 14 miles from Sirsi, the head-quarters of the Sub-division, 20 miles south-east of Sunda, and 370 north-west of Madras. Lat. 14° 33′ N., long. 75° 5′ E. Population (1881) 1999. Formerly a town of considerable importance, but now hardly more than a village. The temple to Siva, though a mean building, had once very large endowments, and is still much frequented; it contains a very fine figure of Nandi, and a table made from black granite. The car-drawing ceremony here takes place every year about March or April, and is attended by about 4000 people, chiefly Haiga Bráhmans. The name of the town occurs in Ptolemy.

Bancoora.—District and town in Bardwán Division, Bengal.—*See* BANKURA.

Bánda.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 53′ 15″ and 25° 55′ N. lat., and between 80° 2′ 45″ and 81° 36′ 15″ E. long. Area, 3061 square miles; with a population, in 1881, of 698,608 souls. Bánda is a

District of the Allahábád Division, and is bounded on the north-east and north by the river Jumna (Jamuná); on the west by the river Ken, the District of Hamírpur, and the Native State of Gaurihár; on the south and south-east by the Native States of Panna, Charkhári, and Rewá; and on the east by Allahábád District. Its southern boundary is intersected by outlying portions of the surrounding Native States. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of Bánda, which is also the largest town in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Bánda consists of a finely varied country, sloping downwards from the Vindhyan range on the south-east to the valley of the Jumna and the Ken on the north and west. The southern or highest portion is composed of the gneiss hills which form the northward escarpment of the great Central Indian table-land. These hills are well wooded, and abound in massive boulders, gigantic scars, and deep ravines; their highest points being about 1300 feet above the sea. Their sides are scored by the excavated beds of large mountain torrents, which in the rainy months form the affluents of the Jumna, and in the dry season gradually diminish, until by the month of May their channels are mostly empty. The Ken and the Bágain, however, the most important amongst them, are never quite dry. To the north of this hilly region lies a tract of undulating plains, at first thickly sprinkled with granite boulders, similar to those on the hills, but gradually diminishing in size and numbers as we descend towards the valley of the Jumna. Isolated pyramidal heights, rising like rocky islands from the general level, are found in the portion of this region nearest to the Vindhyan range, and are often crowned by the ruined fortresses of the Chandel or Bundela chieftains. The plain itself, the most fertile portion of the District, is widest at its western extremity, near the town of Bánda, and narrows like a wedge as it runs eastward, till it finally disappears at the base of the Vindhyan hills. The Jumna valley rises by a series of terraces, broken with ravines, to the level of the table-land above. A portion of the low-lying plain is marshy, and there are patches of scrub jungle in the neighbourhood of the Jumna. The soil of the low ground is chiefly the black variety, known as *már*, which has a singular power of retaining moisture, and is very fertile. As the tributary rivers are confined within wide and deep-cut channels, they are not liable to overflow their banks; but the Jumna inundates and fertilizes its own immediate valley. The whole District is moderately well wooded. The forests in the south-east of the District were, after a few years' negotiations with the proprietors, constituted a Forest division in 1881. They comprise an area of 74,743 acres, of which 53,535 acres have been acquired as Government property, while 21,208 acres are managed under an agreement by which Government gets 55 per cent. of the profits, and the old proprietors 45 per cent. Iron is found along

the base of the Vindhyan hills, and is worked at Kalyánpur, south of Mánikpur. Sandstone for building purposes is extensively quarried at several places, as also are limestone and *kankar*. Antelopes, wild pig, *nilgai*, and ravine deer are plentiful; hyenas common; tigers rare. The rocky hills scattered over the District form a favourite resort of leopards. Snakes are numerous, deaths of human beings and of cattle from their bites being of common occurrence.

History.—Bánda forms one of the Districts included under the general name of Bundelkhand, and its early history is identical with that of the Province, of which a brief sketch may here be given. Bundelkhand is said to have been originally inhabited by the Gonds, a tribe of non-Aryan aborigines; but concerning the date or circumstances of the Aryan conquest nothing is accurately known. It fills a considerable place, however, in the mythical history of the heroic age; the name of Bánda itself being derived, according to legend, from the sage Bámdeo, a contemporary of the mighty Ráma Chandra. Many local names in the District are in like manner connected with his companions. The earliest kings whose dynasty has come down to us through coins and inscriptions were the Nágas. Their capital was at Narwár, and they ruled, probably as viceroys to the Guptas of Kanauj, from the commencement of our era till the end of the 2nd century. From that period till the 8th century, little can be ascertained with regard to the political state of Bundelkhand; but it was apparently independent of the Kanauj government, and formed part of the kingdom of Gwalior. From the 9th to the 14th century, the tract was ruled by the Chandel dynasty (with the exception of a temporary occupation by Prithwi Rájá, the Chauhán King of Delhi, who defeated the Chandel monarch in 1183 A.D.), under whom it rose to the highest power and eminence. Their epoch forms the Augustan age of Bundelkhand, and to it all the principal architectural remains in the tract are referred. It was the Chandels who built the strong mountain fortresses of Kálinjar and Ajaigarh, the exquisite temples of Khajuráhu and Mahoba, and the noble artificial lakes of Hamírpur. Though often attacked by the Musalmáns (*e.g.*, by Mahmúd of Ghazní (Ghuznee) in 1023, and more successfully by Kutab-ud-dín in 1196), they maintained their independence until near the beginning of the 14th century.

The Chandel monarchy was dissolved about the year 1300, and this part of its dominions was occupied by the Bundelas, a body of Hindu military adventurers, from whom the tract derives its modern name, and whose present rank shows them to have been impure or spurious Rájputs. These hardy southern immigrants infused fresh blood into a country long weakened by the Muhammadan invasions. Owing to their determined opposition, the aggressive Musalmáns did not succeed in subjugating Bundelkhand before the reign of Akbar; and even under

that Emperor their authority seems to have been little more than nominal. During the whole period of the Mughal dynasty, the Bundela chiefs remained uncertain and rebellious vassals to the court of Delhi. They were always ready to seize upon the family dissensions, so frequent in the house of Akbar, as an opportunity for asserting their independence. Under Champat Rái they long resisted the power of Sháh Jahán, and after his death they rallied round his son, their national hero, Chhatar Sál, who set himself up as the head of a Hindu league, to oppose the proselytizing efforts of Aurangzeb, and never rested until he had made himself practically independent of Delhi. He attained this object, however, through the dangerous aid of the Maráthás, to whom, on his death, about 1734, he left one-third of his territories, including the present Districts of Lálitpur, Jálaun, and Jhánsi. In 1738, Bájí Ráo, the second of the Peshwas, obtained the supremacy of all Bundelkhand, by treaty with the Rájás. From that time until 1803, the country remained more or less in the power of the Poona throne, though perpetually disturbed by intestine quarrels and predatory border warfare.

The intervening sixty-five years formed a period of great misery and confusion for Bundelkhand, as for the rest of Upper India. Military hordes collected; the hill fastnesses were occupied by the forts of robber chiefs; the villages were plundered and devastated; the commercial and agricultural prosperity, which had grown under the fostering care of the Chandel and earlier Bundela princes, was utterly crushed and desolated by war in the time of the later Bundela kings. Added to all this misery, the mode of collecting the Maráthá revenue was so oppressive that nothing remained to the cultivator beyond the bare means of subsistence. This was the condition of affairs when the British occupation took place. After the battle of Poona in 1802, the treaty of Bassein was concluded with the Peshwa, by which he agreed to cede certain territories for the maintenance of a British force. These territories were afterwards exchanged, by a supplementary treaty in December 1803, for part of the Maráthá dominions in Bundelkhand. An arrangement was also entered into with Rájá Himmat Bahádur, a military adventurer, who held a large part of Bundelkhand under the Peshwa, by which an extension of territory was granted to him as the price of his adherence, and for the maintenance of troops under his command in the service of the British Government. Much opposition was offered by Shamsher Bahádur, the Maráthá Nawáb of Bánda, as well as by the freebooting chiefs, each of whom had to be separately dislodged. But by the close of the year 1804, the country had been sufficiently pacified to permit of its constitution into a British District. Of this District, Bánda formed a part until the year 1819, when it was separated under the name of Southern Bundelkhand. The assignments

granted to Rájá Himmat Bahádur had been resumed shortly after his death in 1804. The titular rank of Nawáb, with a pension of 4 *lákhs* of rupees, was retained in the family of Shamsher Bahádur.

Under British rule, Bánda remained free for fifty years from those greater misfortunes which make up the incidents of Indian history; but its economical condition was far from happy. The impoverishment which it had undergone during the Maráthá rule left it in a miserable state. The people were hopelessly in debt; the land was exhausted by incessant cropping; the wells and other means of irrigation had fallen out of repair, and there was no capital in the District for their renewal. The British fiscal system, though not so oppressive as that of the Maráthás, was severe enough to stand in the way of improvements. In short, the District required, but did not obtain, a long period of light taxation. On the outbreak of the Mutiny in May 1857, the miserable and ignorant inhabitants were easily incited to revolt by the Cawnpur and Allahábád mutineers. The 1st Native Infantry seized on the magazine and public buildings at Bánda, and were joined by the troops of the Nawáb. Until the 14th of June every effort was made by the British residents to retain the town, but on that date it was abandoned. The Nawáb of Bánda then set himself at the head of the rebellious movement. The Joint Magistrate of Karúr was murdered at the gate of the Nawáb's palace at Bánda on the 15th of June. The people through the country districts rose *en masse*, and a period of absolute anarchy followed. The Nawáb attempted to organize a feeble government, but his claims were disputed by other pretenders, and he was quite unable to hold in check the mob of savage plunderers whom the Mutiny had let loose upon the District. The fort of Kálinjar, however, was held throughout by the British forces, aided by the Rájá of Panná. The town of Bandá was recovered by General Whitlock on the 20th of April 1858. The Nawáb was afterwards permitted to retire with a pension of £3600 a year. Since the Mutiny, the fiscal system has been remodelled, and it is hoped that the new settlement will conduce to the revival of prosperity in Bánda, where the general poverty and apathy still bear witness to the disastrous period of Maráthá misrule.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total population of Bánda at 743,872 souls. In 1865 it had decreased to 724,372, showing a falling off of 19,500, or 2·62 per cent. In 1872 the population had further decreased to 697,684, showing an additional falling off of 26,761, or 3·3 per cent. The decrease may be accounted for partly by the Mutiny, but more especially by the poverty of Bundelkhand, which leads the inhabitants to migrate on the slightest pressure of famine or scarcity. A slight falling off is attributed to the departure of the Nawáb of Bánda and other leading families, who

supported large bodies of dependants. The Census of 1881 showed a very slight increase of 924, the total population being returned at 698,608 on an area of 3061 square miles. Density of population 221·6 per square mile. Number of villages, 1166, or ·38 per square mile. Number of occupied houses, 123,393, with an average of 5·66 inmates each. Divided according to sex, the males numbered 354,377, and the females, 344,231. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 657,413, or 94·10 per cent.; Muhammadans, 40,627, or 5·81 per cent.; Sikhs, 21; Christians, 278; Jains, 269. The Bráhmans form a very numerous body, and, together with the Rájputs, comprise the mass of the cultivators, the former numbering 106,099, and the latter 58,381. Next come the trading castes of Baniyás, 23,071, and Ahírs, 55,545. The labouring class consists of low-caste Hindus and semi-Hinduized aborigines. The most numerous of these are the Chamárs, 109,363. Though the Bundelas give their name to the Province, they are not numerous in Bánda. There are only 3 towns containing more than 5000 inhabitants—Bánda, the chief town and civil station, 28,974; Rájápur, 7329; and Mataundh, 6258. Karwi, which in 1872 contained a population of 6854, has greatly decayed of late years, and the Census returns of 1881 do not give it as among the towns containing 5000 inhabitants or upwards. The District also contains the famous hill fortress of Kálinjar, the stronghold of the Chandel kings. The towns and villages in 1881 were classified as follows:—Of the 1166 villages and towns, 326 contained under 200 inhabitants; 391 from 200 to 500; 258 from 500 to 1000; 146 from 1000 to 2000; 32 from 2000 to 3000; 10 from 3000 to 5000; 2 from 5000 to 10,000; and 1 upwards of 20,000. As regards occupation, the male population were returned under the following six main headings in the Census of 1881:—Class (1) Professional, including military and civil officers of Government, the learned professions, etc., 7212; (2) domestic servants, board and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1118; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, 4685; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 175,768; (5) manufacturing, industrial, and artisan class, 38,127; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 17,493 general labourers and 109,974 children, old men, and persons of unspecified occupation), 127,467. The language in ordinary use is Bundelkhandí, a corrupt form of Hindí; but another dialect, embracing a debased Urdú element, is spoken in many villages.

Agriculture.—Though Bánda is not quite so backward as some other portions of Bundelkhand, yet its condition is far from satisfactory. Out of an assessed area, in 1880–81, of 1,832,320 acres, 936,960 are cultivated, while 644,480 more are cultivable or grazing lands. The principal produce consists of wheat, gram, *joár*, *bájrá*, cotton, *til*,

arhar, *alsi*, and *masuri*. The crops of the District are of two classes—the autumn or *kharíf* harvest, for which the sowing takes place from June to August, and the spring or *rabi* harvest, sown in November or December. Of the former, the principal crop in value, though not in acreage, is cotton, occupying an area in 1880–81 of 152,095, and in 1881–82 of 201,866 acres. Hemp and millet are generally sown with it. The other principal *kharíf* crops in 1881–82 were—*joár*, 122,086 acres; *bájrá*, 18,131 acres; *joár* and *bájrá* together, 159,206 acres; *bájrá* and *arhar*, 27,228 acres. Rice occupies only 8227 acres. The chief spring crops are wheat and gram, which are frequently sown together, and occupied the following areas in 1881–82—wheat, sown alone, 7957 acres; wheat and gram together, 160,351 acres; gram, sown alone, 183,750 acres. Oil-seeds are also largely grown. The opium poppy is cultivated on 1018 acres. The *mahuá* tree grows in great luxuriance throughout the District; it is extremely useful for its flowers, fruit, and wood, as well as for the oil extracted from the kernels of the fruit. The chief timber trees are *tendu* (Diospyros melanoxylon), the heart-wood of which is ebony; *kem* (Nauclea); *haldu* (Nauclea cordifolia); *kháwa* (Pentaptera arjuna); *akol* (Allangium hexapetalum); and *gantha* (Schrebera sureitenoides), a very hard rough timber. Teak of a small size is found in both the hills and plains. Considerable quantities of bamboos are exported. The District has suffered much from the spread of the destructive *káns* grass, which has totally impoverished many villages. The peasantry are deeply in debt, poorly housed, and totally apathetic; the landowners are in very straitened circumstances. The system of cultivation is simple, and in the uplands few spots can be tilled to advantage for more than three years consecutively. Rotation of crops is general. Manure is little used, and irrigation is as yet performed only by labourers and bullocks. A scheme, however, has been projected, but is yet (1883) in abeyance, for irrigating the country between the Ken and the Bágain, by means of canals drawn from the former river, which would supply water to about 60,000 acres. The average out-turn and value of crops is as follows:—Wheat, 6 cwt. 22 lbs. per acre, worth £1, 2s.; maize, 5 cwts. 18 lbs. per acre, worth £1; and cotton, 2 cwts. per acre, worth £1, 15s. 10d. The tenures of land are numerous and complicated, but most of them proceed on a plan of joint proprietorship, the coparceners cultivating each his separate share, and the revenue being assessed among them by a rate. As the land has to lie fallow for periods of varying duration, the right of occupancy extends rather to similar holdings than to actual plots. The system of separate large ownerships is on the increase. The total number of adult male cultivators, excluding labourers, is returned at 132,710, cultivating an average of 5·77 acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the

soil, amounts to 493,652, or 77·66 per cent. of the District population. Of the total District area of 3061 square miles, 2871 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 1543 were actually under cultivation in 1880–81, while 990 square miles were returned as cultivable. Total Government assessment, including rates and cesses paid on land, £137,052, or an average of 2s. 9¼d. per cultivated acre; total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £207,699, or an average of 4s. 1¼d. per cultivated acre. The rates of rent vary from under 4s. an acre for ordinary and poor soils, to 15s. an acre for the best. Labourers engaged by the year receive as wages 16s. per annum, eked out by an allowance of grain from June to October, and a present of clothing at the end of the engagement. Monthly labourers, during the busy season, obtain 4s. a month, besides a daily allowance of ½ lb. of bread. Ordinary day-labourers sometimes receive as little as one *ánná* (1½d.) per diem, without further allowance. Women and children take part in even the most arduous field work. Wages have been on the increase since 1850, but as the price of grain has risen in more than the same proportion, the benefit to the labourer is only apparent. Coolies received from 1¾d. to 2¼d. a day in 1850; from 3d. to 3¾d. in 1881: smiths, from 3d. to 4½d. in 1850; from 4½d. to 7½d. in 1871: bricklayers, from 3¾d. to 6d. in 1850; from 4½d. to 7½d. in 1881: and carpenters, from 3d. to 6d. at the former date; from 4½d. to 7½d. at the latter. At the same time, prices ruled as follows:—Common rice, in 1850, 4s. 6d. per cwt., in 1871, 8s., and in 1881–82, 6s. 3d. per cwt.; millet (*bájrá*), in 1850, 10¼d. per cwt., in 1871, 4s. 10½d., and in 1881–82, 3s. 9d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Bánda is specially exposed to the ravages of insects, of which no less than 16 destructive species are enumerated. They attack the wheat, rice, gram, and other grains, and one in particular affects the cotton. Some of them destroy as much as three-fourths of the crops. Floods are not serious, and in most cases prove beneficial. The District suffers much from drought, which was the main cause of the famine of 1869. Prices began to rise in April, and continued high till the end of the year. In May, as many as 10,943 persons were employed daily upon relief works. By the end of June the rains set in, and prevented the necessity for further relief. The maximum price of gram in 1869 was 10 *sers* for the rupee, or 11s. 2½d. per cwt. There was also considerable suffering in 1877–78 on account of drought. The point at which famine rates are reached varies in the different Fiscal Divisions (*parganás*). In Bánda *parganá*, where the population is densest, relief should be given when wheat sells at 22s. 4d. per cwt., and gram at 14s. per cwt. Elsewhere, famine rates are reached with wheat and gram at just half those prices. The communications of the

District with the Doáb are probably sufficient to avert the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade.—Bánda, though a poor agricultural District, has little trade. The Jumna is its main artery, and Chilla, on that river, is a considerable port of entry. The Bánda cotton is sufficiently well known in commerce to be called by its prefix as a trade name. The other principal exports are flax, gram, millets, wheat, and other grains. The chief imports are rice, sugar, and tobacco. The traffic on the Ken is small, owing to the shrinking of the river in the dry season. Manufactured articles are, for the most part, sold at the country fairs, none of which, however, are of any great importance. Coarse cotton cloth and copper utensils are made in the District for home use. Polished pebbles, found in the Ken, and cut into knife handles, brooches, seal-rings, and other ornamental articles, are exported in considerable quantities. There are several quarries in the southern hill country, which export durable sandstone for ornamental architecture, and other stone for metalling roads and for railway purposes. Iron is also found, and worked by companies of blacksmiths. The Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch of the East Indian Railway has a length of about 47 miles in the District, with three stations at Bargarh, Mánikpur, and Márkundi. Mánikpur is connected with the town of Bánda by a road of 59¼ miles long; but as only a small portion is metalled, and as it is often impassable for goods during the rainy season, traffic proceeds chiefly by the well-metalled road to Chilla (24 miles) and thence across the Jumna to Fatehpur station on the East Indian main line. There are 586 miles of roads in the District. All of them, however, except that from Bánda to Chilli, need improvement. No institutions of any importance exist, and there are no newspapers or printing-presses in the District.

Administration.—The District suffered much in the earlier part of the century from over-taxation. Under the Maráthá Government, the State demand amounted to the whole possible out-turn of each village. On the first British Settlement of the whole District, in 1806, the land revenue amounted to £130,305, and in 1814 to £146,454. These assessments were not considered exorbitant. In 1815, the land revenue was raised to £192,122, and again, in 1819, to £203,650. This demand was met, but only by payments out of capital; and the result was soon seen in a general decrease of prosperity. In 1825, the assessment was reduced to £187,890; but the effects of the previous excessive demands, the spread of the *káns* weed, and a series of bad harvests, combined to impoverish Bánda. From that period to the Mutiny, the assessments, in spite of many fluctuations, were generally somewhat heavier than the District could bear. On the reoccupation after the Mutiny, it was necessary to make a considerable reduction.

The land assessment in 1870-71 amounted to £130,482, of which £130,476 were collected. Since then a reassessment of the whole District has been made, and the new settlement, which came into force in 1882, resulted in a further reduction of the land revenue demand to £116,231. There are 8 Fiscal Divisions or *parganás*, containing 1596 separate estates. The number of proprietors is returned at 25,591, classified as follows:—*Zamíndári*, 3187; *pattidári*, 21,293; *bháyáchára*, 1251; and revenue-free, 160. The total revenue in 1870-71 was £167,488, which in 1881 had decreased to £129,535. As Bánda forms a portion of the Allahábád Division, it is administered under the Regulation system organized in 1803. The civil jurisdiction of the whole District is in the hands of the Subordinate Judge. There are 13 magisterial, 2 civil, and 13 revenue and rent courts. The District contains 24 police stations and 11 outposts. The regular police, in 1880-81, amounted to 523 men, maintained at a cost of £6580 from imperial funds. The municipal or town police in 1880 numbered 88 men, costing £590. There are also 1723 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The District contains only one jail, the average number of prisoners in which was 555 in 1850, 121 in 1860, 292 in 1870, and 258 in 1880. Education is advancing slowly. In 1860, there were 3006 children under instruction; in 1870 the total had increased to 4966. In 1880-81, there were 142 schools, under Government inspection, and receiving State aid in the District, attended by 3884 pupils. This excludes uninspected and indigenous schools outside the Education Department. The Census Report of 1881 returned 5890 boys and 120 girls as under instruction in that year, besides 16,869 males and 149 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District contains two administrative Sub-divisions, Bánda and Karwi.

Medical Aspects.—The cold season in Bánda is less intense than that of the neighbouring Districts, frost being very rare. The hot weather sets in about the middle of March, and the spring crops are cut by April. The atmosphere is distinguished by its clearness, fog and dust being almost unknown. The beautiful phenomenon of the mirage is often observed. On the other hand, this purity of the air contributes to the heat, and many deaths occur from exposure to the sun. Mean temperature—January, 63·4° F.; February, 61·9°; March, 82·5°; April, 94°; May, 96°; June, 94·7°; July, 90·6°; August, 86·2°; September, 84·5°; October, 83°; November, 75°; December, 63·6°. The average annual rainfall for a period of 30 years ending 1881-82 was 39 inches, the rainfall in the latter year being 28·9 inches, or 10 inches below the average. The climate is healthy for natives, but produces fever and ague among Europeans. The only endemic disease is malarial fever, which becomes epidemic from August to November. More

than two-thirds of the deaths are due to this cause; of other diseases complaints of the bowels are most fatal. Cattle-disease is occasionally prevalent, but not to any great extent. [For further information regarding Bánda District, see the *Gazetteer for the North-Western Provinces*, vol. i. pp. 61–137 (Allahabad, 1874); the *Census Report for the North-Western Provinces*, 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports*, 1880–82.]

Bánda.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level lowland, intersected by the river Ken. Area, 427·8 square miles, of which 290 are cultivated; population (1881) 120.578 souls; land revenue, £20,711; total revenue (including cesses) £23,244; rental paid by cultivators, £48,703; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 11¾d. per acre of total area. The *tahsíl* contains 2 civil and 8 criminal courts, with 3 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 262 men, besides village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Bánda.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Stands on an undulating plain, 1 mile east of the right bank of the Ken river; distant 95 miles south-west from Allahábád, 190 miles south-east from Agra, and 560 miles north-west from Calcutta. Lat. 25° 28′ 20″ N., long. 80° 22′ 15″ E. Population in 1872, 27,746. Population (1881) 28,974, comprising 20.459 Hindus; 7998 Muhammadans; 249 Jains; 262 Christians; and 6 'others.' Area of town site, 3483 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £3001, of which £2190 was derived from octroi. Bánda is a modern town, deriving its first importance from the residence of the Nawáb of Bánda, and later on from its rising position as a cotton mart. After the removal of the Nawáb in 1858, owing to his disloyalty during the Mutiny (see BANDA DISTRICT), the town began to decline, while the growth of Rájápur as a rival cotton emporium has largely deprived Bánda of its principal trade. The population has accordingly decreased from 42,411 in 1853 to 28,974 in 1881. It is a straggling and ill-built town, but with clean, wide streets, containing 66 mosques, 161 Hindu temples, and 5 Jain temples, some of which possess fair architectural merit; *tahsíli*, court-house, jail, dispensary, school-house, church. The Nawáb's palace has been partly demolished, partly converted into dwelling-houses. The antiquities of the place comprise the ruins of a palace built by the Ajaigarh Rájás; the tomb of Gumán Singh, Rájá of Jaitpur, in good preservation; and the remains of the Bhúragarh fort beyond the Ken, stormed by the British forces in 1804. The cantonments are one mile from the town, on the Fatehpur road.

Bánda.—*Tahsíl* in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 53′ and 24° 26′ N. lat., and between 78° 42′ 45″ and 79° 17′ 45″ E. long. Area, 701 square miles, of which 202 are cultivated

and 229 returned as cultivable. Five square miles are reserved under the Forest Department. Population (1881) 82,333, namely, males 42,883, and females 39,450; number of villages, 273. The adult agricultural population numbers 32,561, or 39·55 per cent. of the total population of the *tahsíl;* average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 8 acres per adult agriculturist. Total amount of Government land revenue, £4865; total revenue, including cesses, £5210, or an average of 10¼d. per cultivated acre; rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £14,307, or an average of 2s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 2 police stations and 8 outposts. Strength of regular police, 79 men; of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 203.

Bánda.—Small town in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, and unimportant, except as being the head-quarters of Bánda *tahsíl*, situated about 20 miles north-east of Ságar town, on the main road to Cawnpur. Population (1881) 1313; houses, 336. Police station and village school.

Bandaján.—Pass in Muzafarábád Division of Kashmír State, Punjab, over a range of the Himálayas, covered with an unbroken sheet of perpetual snow. Lat. (summit) 31° 22′ N., long. 78° 4′ E.; elevation above the sea, 14,854 feet.

Bandamúrlanka.—Hamlet attached to the town of Kumárigiripatnam in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 25′ N., long. 82° 1′ E.; population (1881) 4380. Situated 18 miles east of Narsápur, on the Vainateyam, or western mouth of the Godávari. One of the three earliest English settlements in the delta of that river. A factory established here early in the 18th century was shortly afterwards abandoned. It is still a small seaport.—*See* BANDARULANKA.

Bandar (*Bandwar*).—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 702 square miles. Land revenue, £31,000. Houses, 30,779; population (1881) 175,482, thus classified according to sex—males, 88,279; females, 87,203; distributed in 2 towns and 188 villages. Chief town, MASULIPATAM, or Bandar.

Bandar.—Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency.—*See* MASULIPATAM.

Bandárban.—Principal village of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, and the residence of the Poáng Rájá (the Bohmong), situated on the Sangu river. Lat. 22° 12′ 30″ N., long. 92° 16′ 30″ E.; population about 3000. There is a permanent market here, at which considerable traffic is carried on. The hillmen bring down for sale timber (either rough or hewn into boats), cotton, bamboos, rattans, thatching-grass, sesamum, mustard, india-rubber, and occasionally small quantities of ivory and wax. They buy rice, salt, spices, dried fish, tobacco, cattle, piece-goods, trinkets, etc. The most interesting building in the

village is a Buddhist temple, to which the people resort in large numbers at the time of their festival in May. Government middle-class Anglo-vernacular school, with boarding department. Police station.

Bandárulanka.—Village in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 35′ N., long. 82° 2′ E. Population (1881) 2673, inhabiting 467 houses. Situated on the Kausika branch of the Godávari river.

Bandel. —Small village on the bank of the river Húglí, about a mile above Húglí town, in Bengal. Lat. 22° 55′ N., long. 88° 26′ E. Contains a Roman Catholic monastery, said to be the oldest Christian church in Bengal. A stone over the gateway bears the date 1599, but the original church founded in that year was burnt during the siege of Húglí by the Mughals in 1632, the images and pictures which it contained being destroyed by the command of the Emperor of Delhi. The present building was erected shortly afterwards; and the Emperor, on the intercession of one of the priests, who was taken prisoner to Agra, made a grant of 777 *bighás* (about 250 acres) of land rent-free to the monastery. In its early days, the Portuguese built a fort opposite it for its defence; and towards the close of last century there were, in addition to the monastery, a nunnery, a boarding school, and a college of Jesuits. The mixed descendants of the Portuguese and natives sank into a low depth of degradation on the decline of the Portuguese power, and Bandel became proverbial for the immorality of its women. The inhabitants are now pure Bengalis, with the exception of a few priests; and the taint which during more than a hundred years attached to Bandel, passed away with the disappearance of the last half-breed remnants of Portuguese rule. At present (1883), the establishment consists of a very small Portuguese mission. At the festival of the Novena, celebrated in November, a large number of Roman Catholics resort to the place. The name 'Bandel' is a corruption of *bandar*, a wharf or port.

Bandipallam (*Vannárapaláyam*).—Hill and stream in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 43′ 15″ N., long. 79° 48′ E. A strategical point of importance in the Anglo-French campaigns of 1750 to 1780.

Bándra (*Wándren Bandora, Vándra*).—Town in the Salsette Subdivision of Thána District, Bombay Presidency; situated at the southern extremity of Salsette, at the point where that island is connected with the island of Bombay by a causeway and arched stone bridge; 9 miles north of Bombay. Lat. 19° 3′ 5″ N., long. 72° 52′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 14,987; municipal revenue, £1536, or nearly 2s. per head; municipal expenditure, £1459; average annual value of trade at the port of Bandra for 5 years—exports £2138, imports £7505. The town has a post-office and a dispensary, and is a station on the

Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Since the opening of railway communication, Bándra has become a favourite place of resort for the citizens of Bombay.

Banga.—Town and municipality in Nawáshahr *tahsil*, Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab; 22 miles east of Jullundur (Jalandhar) town. Lat. 31° 11′ 15″ N., long. 76° 2′ E. Population (1881) 4565, made up as follows:—Hindus, 2767; Muhammadans, 763; Sikhs, 945; and Jains, 90. Occupied houses, 761. The town forms a local commercial centre, with a large trade in sugar, wheat, and country produce, manufacture of cotton cloth, and of brass and copper vessels. A well-built and paved town, with a dispensary, Government middle school, post-office, and police station. Municipal income (1880–81) £323; expenditure, £226.

Bangáhal.—Valley in Kángra District, Punjab, forming the link between Kángra Proper and the outlying dependency of Kullu. Lat. 32° 18′ to 32° 29′ N., long. 76° 49′ to 76° 55′ E. Consists of two mountain glens, divided from one another by the Dháola Dhár range. The northern half, known as Bará Bangáhal, contains the head-waters of the Rávi, which issues already a considerable river into the Native State of Chamba. The area of Bará Bangáhal is 290 square miles; but it contains only one village, situated at the lowest point of the valley, some 8500 feet above the sea, and inhabited by a few Kanet families. Some years ago, a number of houses in the village were swept away by an avalanche. The mountains slope steeply up from the banks of the river, and rise into peaks of from 17,000 to over 20,000 feet, covered with glaciers and perpetual snow. Near the bottom of the ravines there is a good deal of pine forest, and higher up, long bare slopes, which, on the melting of the snows, afford splendid grazing for large flocks of sheep and goats. The southern half, known as Chhotá Bangáhal, is again divided into two parts by a branch range 10,000 feet in height; its eastern fork contains the head-waters of the Ul river, and some eighteen small scattered villages, inhabited by Kanets and Dághis. The western glen, known as the Bír Bangáhal, does not differ in any material respect from the general aspect of the Kángra District.

Bangáli.—River of North Bengal: rises in Rangpur, flows thence through a marshy tract which it drains by means of deep *khâls*, or water-channels, into Bográ District. In the latter District, after receiving the waters of the Manás, it falls into the Halhaliá river, which ultimately joins the Phuljhur. The great marshes which cover the entire tract through which the river runs, empty themselves into it by means of deep *khâls* or drainage channels. In this way, in the rainy season, the Bangáli becomes the main artery by which boat traffic is extended all over the east of Bográ District; and on its banks, or on

those of its affluent *kháls*, are some of the principal trade marts of Eastern Bengal.

Bangalore (*Bengaluru*). — District of Mysore State, Southern India, forming the southern portion of the Nandidrúg (Nundydroog) Division. It lies between 12° 13′ and 13° 30′ N. lat., and between 77° 7′ and 78° 3′ E. long., being bordered on the south by the Madras Districts of Coimbatore and Salem. It contains an estimated area of 2901 square miles, of which 860 are cultivated, 818 are cultivable, and 1223 uncultivable waste. Greatest length from north to south, 85 miles; from east to west, 50 miles. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 669,139 souls. The District is sub-divided into the following *táluks*: ANEKAL, BANGALORE, CLOSEPET, DEVANHALLI, DODBALLAPUR, HOSKOT, KANKANHALLI, MAGADI, NELAMANGALA. The number of villages on the rent-roll is 5504. Land revenue (1881–82) £93,864. Total revenue, £173,966. The civil and military headquarters are at the town of BANGALORE (*q.v.*), which is also the administrative capital of the State. At the time of the restoration of the Province of Mysore to the young Mahárájá in 1881, the cantonment part of Bangalore was separated and styled the civil and military station of Bangalore, under the administration of British officers. Excepting slight reductions in establishments, the constitution of the District remains much the same as in 1873.

Physical Aspects.—The main portion of the District consists of the valley of the Arkávatí river, which joins the Káveri (Cauvery) on the southern frontier; the eastern part is watered by the South Pinákini (or Pennar). Towards the west, the country is broken by a succession of rugged hills and deep valleys; the remaining tract, which is open and undulating, forms part of the general table-land of Mysore, attaining at Bangalore town an elevation of 3113 feet above the sea. The low-lying lands are dotted with tanks for irrigation, varying in size from small ponds to considerable lakes, formed by embanking the minor streams. The uplands are often bare, or covered with low scrub jungle. The best known of the hills is the rock-fortress of Sávandrúg, which towers to a height of 4024 feet: the sacred hill of Siva-ganga is about 500 feet higher. The Arkávati river runs a total course of about 120 miles. During the hot season its sandy bed only contains a thin, trickling stream; but in the rains, heavy freshets come down, bearing along large uprooted trees and logs of timber. Its maximum flood discharge is calculated at 50,000 cubic feet of water per second. The prevailing formation is gneiss, disrupted by dikes of trap and porphyritic rocks; adularia, pink felspar, chert, corundum, chalcedony, mica, and hornblende are found; hematite iron ore is abundant, and a nodular limestone yields excellent lime, which bears a high polish. The gneiss rock is extensively quarried for building purposes, and supplies solid

columns 35 feet long. Potter's clay is utilized by the native workmen, and various kinds of kaolinitic clay exist, specimens of which have been favourably reported upon in England. The prevailing soil is the red or *kempu*, a loam of great fertility, varying in colour from a light red to a deep chocolate; the darker sorts are supposed to be caused by the weathering down of the trap rocks. The decomposed gneiss gives the *saulu* earth, grey, sandy, and sterile soils, and the kaolinitic clays. Low jungle abounds in most parts of the District. The demand for fuel created by the railway, and the increasing consumption at Bangalore town, have led to the formation of large wood plantations. State forests cover an area of about 32 square miles. Avenues have been planted along all the public roads, and ornamental trees have recently been introduced into the station of Bangalore, with most picturesque results. Wild animals are not so abundant as in the mountainous tracts bordered by the Western Gháts.

History.—The tract now known as Bangalore District has often figured prominently in the annals of Southern India. The little town of Kankanhalli is generally identified as the Konkanapura of the Buddhist pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, who traversed India in the 7th century A.D. The earliest local legends are associated with the ruins of Nandagúdi and Malúr; but authentic history begins with the Gangá dynasty, who are said to have ruled over a great part of Southern India after the commencement of the Christian era. At least two sovereigns of this line are known to have fixed their residence at Malrú or Muganda-patna. The Gangás were succeeded in about 900 A.D. by the Cholás, who were shortly afterwards overthrown in their turn by the Ballál dynasty.

Vira Balláda, who reigned 1191 to 1211 A.D., is the traditional founder of Bangalore town. The Ballál dynasty was destroyed by the Muhammadans in 1364; and amid the general disorder, a family of Telugu immigrants, known as the Morásu Wokkálu, established themselves as feudatories of the Vijayanagar kings. The chief of the family bore the name of Gauda. His capital was at Magadi, with Sávandrúg as a stronghold in time of danger. The next conqueror to appear on the scene is the Maráthá Sháhjí, the father of Sivají the Great. He had received Bangalore and Kolár, with other neighbouring tracts, as a *jágír* or feudal grant from the Muhammadan prince of Bíjápur. He made Bangalore his residence, and his government extended over the whole of 'Karnatic Bíjápur.' Like his more illustrious son, Sháhjí found his opportunity in playing off against one another the rival Musalmán kingdoms of Delhi, Bíjápur, and Ahmadnagar, by which means he was enabled to establish his independence in the remote and fertile Principality of Tanjore. On his death, in 1664, the inheritance was disputed between his two sons, Sivají and Venkojí or Ekojí; but

Sivají finally withdrew to his native hills near Púna (Poona), leaving his brother in undisputed possession of the southern dominions of Sháhjí.

Meanwhile the Wadeyárs of Mysore, the ancestors of the existing royal family, were rising to power. In 1610 they had gained possession of Seringapatam, and in 1654 the Gauda chief of Magadi was rendered tributary to them. The distant authority of Venkojí, who had not inherited the military instincts of his family, appears to have been merely nominal; and in 1687 he offered to sell his rights over Bangalore to the more warlike Rájá of Mysore, for three *lákhs* of rupees (£30,000). This transaction was interrupted by the arrival of Kásim Khán, a general of Aurangzeb, who occupied the fortress for a few days, but ultimately consented to hand it over to the Mysore Rájá, on the same terms that had been offered by Venkojí. Thus, in July 1687, Bangalore became a part of the kingdom of Mysore, but the entire District was not subjected till sixty years later. The representatives of the Gauda line still lingered at Magadi, and retained possession of the fortress of Sávandrúg, while another member of the same family ruled at Devanhalli. In 1728 Magadi and Sávandrúg were taken, and Devanhalli fell in 1749. It was in the siege of the latter town that Haidar Ali first distinguished himself as a volunteer horseman in the Mysore service, and it was at the same spot that his son and successor, Tipu, was afterwards born. In reward for his valour, Haidar Ali was presented in 1758 with the fort and District of Bangalore, which thus formed the original nucleus of his wide empire; and both Bangalore and Devanhalli were always natural objects of solicitude to himself and his son.

In 1791, Bangalore was captured from Tipu, by the British under Lord Cornwallis, without much opposition; the other strong places surrendered, and the rock-fortress of Sávandrúg was stormed after five days' bombardment. On the capture of Seringapatam and death of Tipu, in 1799, the District was included by the treaty of Seringapatam within the territory of the restored Hindu Rájá of Mysore. In 1811, owing to the excessive unhealthiness of Seringapatam, the British troops were removed to the town of Bangalore, which has henceforth continued to be the administrative capital of the State, where a palace has been built for the Mahárájá, who divides his time between Bangalore and Mysore. Under the Native government, Bangalore and Kolár Districts constituted the *faujdári* of Bangalore, which was subsequently termed the Bangalore Division, until the formation of the Nandidrúg (Nundydroog) Division in 1863, when the name of Bangalore was confined to the District. Bangalore formed the head-quarters District of the British administration of Mysore from the time when we took charge of the State in 1831, until its rendition to the Mahárájá of Mysore in 1881.

Population.—A *khána sumarí*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853-54 returned a population of 618,506 souls. The regular Census of 1871 showed the numbers to be 828,354, giving an increase of nearly 40 per cent. in the interval of 18 years, if the earlier figures can be trusted. The Census of 1881 returned a population of 669,139 souls, a number nearly one-fourth less than the figures of 1871, and nearly equal to the enumeration of 1853-54, giving an average of 231 persons per square mile. This enormous decrease was caused by the mortality caused by the terrible famine which desolated Southern India in 1876-78. Classified according to sex, there are 330,820 males and 338,319 females. As regards occupation, 204,014 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 465,125 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, including 490 Jains, 593,612, or 88·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 55,591, or 8·3 per cent.; Christians, 19,917, or 2·9 per cent.; 11 Pársís; and 8 Buddhists. The Hindus are further sub-divided, according to the two great sects, into worshippers of Vishnu, and worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 26,309, chiefly belonging to the Smarta sect; the claimants to the rank of Kshattriyas are returned at 10,817, among whom the Maráthás number 8497; the Satanís number 3059, the Komatís 5094, and the Nagarthas 5412. Of inferior castes, the most numerous is the Wokliga (157,122), who are agricultural labourers; the Lingáyats (32,894) have always been very influential in this part of the country; the Kúruba caste of shepherds numbers 32,467; the Banajiga, traders, 26,252; the Tiglars, market gardeners, 24,463. In Bangalore town, 14 persons, including 3 women, entered themselves as adherents of the Bráhma Samáj, but the real number is believed to be greater. The Musalmáns, as might be anticipated, muster strongest in the *táluk* of Bangalore. The great majority are returned as Deccani Muhammadans, and there are only 126 Wahábís. Out of the total of 19,917 Christians, 15,294 are found in the town of Bangalore, where, apart from the strength of the garrison, there are many European pensioned soldiers. The Europeans altogether number 4723, and the Eurasians 2546, leaving 12,648 for the native converts. Of the total Christians, 4922 belong to the Church of England; 13,186 to the Romish Church; 11,809 to other persuasions.

The District contains 5504 towns and villages, with 108,466 inhabited houses. As compared with the area and population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 1·9; houses per square mile, 37·3; persons per village, 121·5; persons per house, 6·20. The town and cantonments of Bangalore, which are fully described in the following article, cover an area of nearly 14 square miles, and contain a total population of 155,857 souls. The following are the five other principal towns:—DOD-BALLAPUR,

7032; ANEKAL, 5995; SUKRAVARPET, 5840; DEVANHALLI, 5774; and CLOSEPET, 4832. Including Bangalore town and cantonment, there are seventeen municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1880–81 of £21,770, of which amount Bangalore itself is credited with £20,466. The celebrated rock-fortress of Sávandrúg and the yet higher hill of Sivaganga, a frequented place of pilgrimage, are both situated in the north-west of the District.

Agriculture.—The principal cultivation of the District consists of 'dry' crops, rice being comparatively neglected. The great food staple is *ragi* (Cynosurus corocanus), which also furnishes the necessary fodder for the cattle. Various millets and pulses are grown, and a little wheat. Rice is chiefly sown in the low-lying areas beneath large tanks, and in the neighbourhood of wells; but the out-turn is somewhat uncertain, and the growing crop is liable to blight. The chief oil-seeds raised are *gingelli* (Sesamum orientale) and the castor-oil plant. Mulberry cultivation for the support of silkworms has much declined in recent years. Opium and poppy are cultivated in certain tracts. The most valuable of the 'wet' crops is sugar cane, which requires to be well cared for and highly manured. Vegetables, both of indigenous and European sorts, are largely grown for the markets of Bangalore and Madras; and the example of the Lál Bágh in Bangalore town has led to the introduction of many flowering plants from England. The average rates of rent, in 1880–81, per acre of land suited for rice, was 12s. 9d.; wheat, 13s. 9¾d.; inferior grains, 2s. 11¼d.; oil-seeds, 3s.; fibres, 2s.; sugar-cane, 23s. 3d.; and tobacco, 11s. The average produce per acre of land, in pounds, was of rice, 1409; of wheat, 970; of inferior grains, 580; of oil-seeds, 433; of fibres, 120; of sugar-cane, 2611; and of tobacco, 194 pounds. The following are the agricultural statistics for 1881:—Area under rice, 39,485 acres; wheat, 13; other food-grains, 467,863; oil-seeds, 22,846; sugar-cane, 2170; tobacco, 664; vegetables, 4952; mulberry, 4450; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 8077; lac, 178 acres. The agricultural stock is returned at 12,183 carts, and 65,095 ploughs; the number of tanks at 3430. The current prices ruling in the District in 1880–81, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were, for rice, 6s. 8¼d.; wheat, 6s. 9d.; cotton, 49s. 3d.; sugar, 20s. 7½d.; salt, 8s.; gram, from 6s. to 2s.; *ragí*, 2s. 4½d.; pulses, 5s. 9¾d.; tobacco, 45s. 9d.; poppy-seeds, 12s. 3d.; and salt, 4s. to 9s. The rate of wages for skilled labour is 6d. to 1s. 6d.; unskilled, from 3d. to 6d. per day. The number of domestic animals is estimated as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 307,581; horses, 743; ponies, 2112; donkeys, 10,608; sheep and goats, 269,298; pigs, 1083. Elephants and camels are only kept by the Commissariat Department. A few horses are bred by the *silladárs* from country mares and Government stallions,

but the majority are imported. The cattle are of an excellent breed, and the rearing of bulls for sale forms a favourite occupation of well-to-do *ráyats.* Buffaloes are not much used for ploughing. Sheep and goats thrive well; the wool of the former, however, is of a coarse description, and only used for the manufacture of native blankets and horse rugs. An attempt made by Government to introduce the merino breed of sheep has not proved successful.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufacture of cotton cloths and coarse woollen blankets, or *kamblis*, is a common industry in all parts of the District. The finer sorts of cloth are woven with some admixture of silk, and with silk borders. The production of raw silk is confined to the Muhammadan section of the community, and has much declined in recent years owing to epidemic diseases among the indigenous worms. In 1866 an Italian gentleman imported a superior breed of worms from Japan, and established a large filature at the town of Kengeri; but the enterprise failed from the same cause. Silk cloth, of durable texture and costly patterns, is woven by the *patvegárs* of Bangalore, and sold by weight at the rate of 8s. to 10s. a *tolá.* Other specialties are the lacquered ware, glass ornaments, and steel wire for musical instruments, made at Channapatna. In the Magadi *táluk*, a good deal of iron is worked in the native fashion, and some steel. The handicrafts of Bangalore town are those necessarily found in a great city. Carpet-making is carried on with great success in the central jail, and the carpets there made, after Persian and Turkish designs, sell in Europe at prices ranging from £1, 4s. per square yard. The commerce of the District, which is carried on both with the east and west coasts, centres at the busy *bázár* of the native quarter of Bangalore. The other principal marts of trade are CHANNAPATNA, DOD-BALLAPUR, SARJAPUR, VADAGENHALLI, and TYAMAGONDAL. A cattle fair held annually at Huskúr, a village in the Anekál *táluk*, is attended by about 3000 persons, and 10,000 bullocks are brought for sale. The Bangalore branch of the Madras Railway runs through the District for about 20 miles, with its terminus at Bangalore town; and the Mysore State Railway—opened in July 1882,—from Bangalore city to Mysore, for about 42 miles. There are 511 miles of made roads in the District.

Administration.—In the year 1881–82 the total revenue of Bangalore District amounted to £173,966. The chief items were—Land revenue, £93,864; *ábkári* or excise, £54,135; law and justice, £3389. In 1870–71, the number of separate estates was 932, owned by 3651 registered proprietors or coparceners. During 1880, the average daily prison population of the central jail was 837, of whom 55 were females. These figures show 1·25 persons in jail for every 1000 of the District population; but it must be recollected that the central

jail contains many long-term convicts from the entire State of Mysore. In the same year, the District police force consisted of 1 superior officer, 53 subordinate officers, and 527 constables; the town and cantonment police of 1 superintendent, 4 superior officers, 62 subordinate officers, and 230 constables; making a total of 878 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £13,797, of which £3806 was paid from local sources. According to these figures, there is 1 policeman to every 3·3 square miles of the District area, or to every 766 of the population; while the cost averages £4, 15s. 1d. per square mile, and 4¾d. per head of population. The number of schools in 1880–81 aided and inspected by Government was 234, attended by 10,775 scholars, being 1 school to every 12·4 square miles, and 16 scholars to every thousand of the population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bangalore town and the surrounding country is noted for its healthiness, but in the hilly jungles towards the west and south, malarious fever is endemic. The mean annual temperature is 76·2° F., the extreme range in any single year having been 42°. The average annual rainfall is 36 inches, distributed over about 90 days. The heaviest fall generally occurs during the prevalence of the north-east monsoon in October; from December to May there is usually little or no rain. The most prevalent disease is malarious fever, frequently attended with enlargement of the spleen; it is most common at the beginning and close of the monsoons. Cholera occasionally appears in an epidemic form, attributed to importation from Madras. Small-pox is always more or less prevalent during the hot season, and at the commencement of the rains, though vaccination is now systematically conducted in every *táluk*. Pneumonia in natives, and congestion of the lungs in Europeans, are common. In recent years there have been some cases of typhoid fever, confined to the European population. On the other hand, the severe but not fatal epidemic of dengue fever in 1872 was almost entirely limited to the natives. Out of a total number of 10,003 deaths reported in 1880, 5470 were assigned to fevers, 82 to small-pox, 563 to bowel complaints, 4 to cholera, 11 to suicide, and 24 to snake-bite or wild animals; to all other causes, 3849. The births registered for 1880 were 8333 males, and 7941 females; total, 16,274. There are two charitable establishments at Bangalore for the relief of the sick—the Bowring Civil Hospital and the *Pét* Dispensary. In 1880 a total of 1441 in-patients were treated at the hospital, and the number of deaths was 221, or 153·3 per thousand; the out-patients numbered 24,825. The dispensary in-patients numbered 247 during the year 1880, of whom 1 died; the number of out-patients was 21,215.

[For further information regarding Bangalore District, see the *Mysore*

and Coorg Gazetteer, by Lewis Rice, Esq., pp. 1–81, vol. ii. (Bangalore, 1876); also the *Census Report of Mysore for* 1881.]

Bangalore City and Cantonment (*Bengaluru:* literally, 'Town of *bengalu*'—a kind of bean).—The chief town of the District and *táluk* of the same name, and the seat of Government for the State of Mysore, situated in 12° 57′ 37″ N. lat., and 77° 36′ 56″ E. long.; 71 miles north-east of Seringapatam, and 216 miles by rail west of Madras. The town is divided into two parts—the *pét*, or old native quarter, including the fort; and the cantonments. The total area is 13½ square miles, and the population, according to the Census of 1881, amounts to 155,857 souls,—town, 62,317; cantonment, 93,540. This tract was assigned to the British on the rendition of Mysore to its native prince in 1881.

General Appearance.—The city of Bangalore stands in the centre of the Mysore table-land, 3113 feet above the sea. The general level is only broken by a few slight elevations, and the plain is interspersed with several large tanks. The fort lies on the extreme south-west, north of which is the *pét*, or old native quarter; the cantonments stretch away towards the north-east, terminating in the new native quarter of the cantonment *bázár*. Beyond this again is the suburb of St. John's Hill, or Cleveland Town, dotted with the little cottages of a large number of European pensioned soldiers, which, with the spire of its parish church, presents somewhat the appearance of an English village. The large open space between the two native quarters contains the race-course, the Cubbon Park, and the parade ground. Here also are situated the chief Government offices, and the houses of the European residents, each encircled by its own green compound. The railway station is in the extreme north, and in the opposite direction, beyond the fort, is the Lál Bágh, or 'horticultural gardens.' When the British assumed the direct administration of Mysore in 1831, the principal departments of Government found accommodation in the palace inside the fort. In 1868, new offices were erected in the cantonments; and the old palace, a large two-storied building of mud, has been suffered to fall into decay. The arsenal still remains within the fort. A proposal in 1884 to demolish the Fort of Bangalore evoked strong remonstrances from the Anglo-Indian community, seconded by the opposition of the Mahárájá of Mysore. The place forms one of the most historical sites in Southern India. The original Hindu fort was of mud, and is said to have been erected in 1537. The Muhammadans rebuilt it in stone in 1761, the first year of Haidar Ali's reign. It formed the traditional scene of the first captivity of Sir David Baird after Baillie's defeat at Perambákam in 1780; and it was taken by Lord Cornwallis in 1791, in the series of military operations against Tipu Sultán known as the third Mysore War. Its dungeons were

explored, and pathetic traces of the captivity of British officers came to light. In 1811, on the removal of the British garrison from Seringapatam to Bangalore, the fort afforded quarters to some of our troops. The arsenal was transferred from Seringapatam to the Bangalore fort in 1823, and, as above mentioned, still remains within it. The following description is taken from an article in the *Calcutta Englishman*: 'The form of the fort is oval, with round towers at proper intervals. It had, when captured by the British, five powerful cavaliers, a *fausse-braye*, a good ditch, and covered way without palisades, but the *glacis* was imperfect in some parts. The two gateways, one in the north and the other in the south, were called the Delhi and Mysore gates. The former, which opened towards the *pet* (or town), was a handsome structure in the best style of Muhammadan military architecture, and consisted of several gates surmounted by traverses. But, there being no ditches between the gates, an enemy taking possession of the works over the first gateway had a ready communication with all the others, which the British troops, who stormed the fort at this point, took advantage of.' The fortifications are now interesting from an antiquarian rather than from a military point of view. The prison cell of Sir David Baird and his fellow-captive is from twelve to fifteen feet square, with so low a roof that a man can scarcely stand upright.

The *pét*, or old native quarter, is very densely populated; there are 12,647 houses, with 62,317 inhabitants, in an area of 2⅓ square miles. Until the last few years, the *pét* was surrounded by a deep ditch and a thick-set hedge, a memorial from the times of Maráthá inroads. The streets are, for the most part, narrow and irregularly built, but there are not a few handsome houses owned by wealthy merchants. The course of trade is brisk, especially in the grain and cotton markets; and altogether the *pét* presents the appearance of a prosperous oriental city.

The following are the chief buildings scattered over the wide area known as the cantonments, which cover 11¼ square miles, with a population of 93,540 persons. Government House, the residence formerly of the Chief Commissioner, now of the Resident, of Mysore, and the fine range of new public offices, rise amid the wooded grounds of Cubbon Park, to the west of the parade ground. The public offices, erected at a cost of £50,000, occupy a long two-storied building, in the Grecian style of architecture; the lower storey is all of stone surrounded with verandahs. The central jail covers a large space; it is built on the radiating principle, with workshops for many trades, and is surrounded by grounds kept under cultivation by the prisoners. The High School (now the Central College) contains a hall, with a roof supported by light monolithic columns, 35 feet high, quarried in the neighbourhood. In the extreme

north of the town a handsome palace, of hewn stone, has been recently built for the Mahárájá. There are altogether eight churches of the different Christian sects, and many Hindu temples and Muhammadan mosques. Bangalore is the head-quarters of the Mysore Division of the Madras army, and contains separate barracks for artillery, cavalry, and infantry, as well as Sepoy lines. The Lál Bágh, about a mile east of the fort, is a beautiful pleasure garden, said to have been first laid out in the time of Haidar Ali. It is now under the charge of a European superintendent from Kew, and contains a rare collection of tropical and sub-tropical plants. Irrigation is supplied from a neighbouring tank. Periodical flower and fruit shows are held, and the weekly gathering at the band stand attracts large numbers both of Europeans and natives.

History.—Bangalore is not an ancient city, though it figures prominently as a place of military importance in the recent history of Mysore. The fort is said to have been founded in 1537 by Kempe Gauda, the ancestor of a line of local chieftains whose chief residence was at Magadi, with Sávandrúg as their hill fortress. In 1638, Bangalore was captured by Rand-ulla Khán, the general of the Adil Sháhí Prince of Bíjapur, the representative at that time of the Muhammadan power in the Deccan (Dakshin). The first Bíjapur deputy-governor of these southern conquests was the Maráthá Sháhjí, father of the more celebrated Sivají. The fort of Bangalore was included in the *jágír* granted to Sháhjí, in order to attach him to the cause of Bíjapur. This *jágír* descended to his degenerate son Venkojí, or Ekojí, who preferred the security of his distant throne at Tanjore, and consented to sell Bangalore to the Hindu Wádeyar of Mysore, who was then rising to power. For a few days the fort was occupied by Kásím Khán, the general of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, who finally surrendered it to the Mysore Rájá for £30,000, the sum which had originally been agreed upon with Venkojí.

This transfer took place in 1687. Bangalore is not again mentioned in history until 1758, when the fort and surrounding District were conferred as a *jágír* upon Haidar Alí, in consideration of his military services to the Rájá of Mysore against the Maráthás. During the period when Haidar Ali was conspiring against his Hindu master with varying success, Bangalore was always his military head-quarters, and a safe retreat in time of danger. In 1761, the first year of his independence, he commenced the enlargement of the fort, and built the existing walls and towers of stone. During his reign, and also during that of his son Tipu, though Seringapatam was the recognised capital, the palace inside the fort of Bangalore was often occupied by the royal harem. In 1791, in the course of what is known as the third Mysore war, Bangalore was besieged by the British army,

led by Lord Cornwallis in person. Despite the active opposition of Tipu Sultán, who kept the open field, the *pét* or native town was entered on the 7th March, and on the 21st of the same month the fort was taken by assault. The storming party advanced at midnight, beneath a bright moon; the garrison offered a respectable resistance, and their losses were severe. On the fall of Seringapatam and the death of Tipu Sultán in 1799, the State of Mysore was restored to a descendant of the old line of Hindu Wádeyars, and a British force was stationed at Seringapatam.

In 1811, owing to the unhealthiness of Seringapatam, Bangalore was selected as the military station; and subsequently, in 1831, when the State was taken under British administration, the civil offices of Government were also placed at Bangalore, which has thus gradually risen to be the acknowledged capital both of the District of Bangalore and of the State of Mysore, though the town of Mysore still remains the nominal capital of the State. Under British administration, Bangalore has greatly prospered both in commercial wealth and in the outward marks of civilisation. It now ranks next after Agra as the thirteenth most populous town in India. The needs of the military garrison have caused large open spaces to be left, which serve both for ornament and recreation. Many handsome public buildings have been erected of the stone quarried in the neighbourhood. A regular water supply is provided from numerous large tanks, and the sewage is conveyed away to be utilized on municipal farms. The healthiness of the climate has permitted a large colony of European pensioners to establish themselves in the suburbs, who confer a peculiarly English aspect upon the social system of the city.

Population. — According to official returns, the population of Bangalore city amounted to 134,628 souls in 1852, 175,630 souls in 1858, and 142,513 souls in 1871. The regular Census of 1881 disclosed a total of 155,857 inhabitants in an area of 13½ square miles. If the early figures are to be trusted, it would appear that the population has not materially increased in recent years. Of the total number in 1881, 77,927 are males and 77,930 females; proportion of males, 50·0 per cent. The Hindus number 108,893, or 74·1 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 29,521, or 15·1 per cent.; the Christians, 17,430, or 10·8 per cent. of the total population; and 'others,' 13. Among the Hindus are included 224 Jains. The unusual proportion of Christians is partly to be explained by the existence of the European troops in the cantonments, and also of a large colony of married pensioners. As many as 2756 Europeans and 334 Eurasians are classed as 'military officials' in the Census returns. The following table, compiled from the Census Report, shows the population of both the *pét* and the cantonments, classified according to religion and race :—

POPULATION OF BANGALORE (1881).

	Pét.	Cantonments.	Total.
Hindus, ...	52,696	56,197	108,893
Muhammadans, . . .	8,688	20,833	29,521
Others, ...	1	12	13
Christians—			
Europeans, . . .	2	4,096	4,098
Eurasians, . . .	6	2,411	2,417
Native converts, . .	650	8,129	8,779
Total Christians, .	932	16,498	17,430
Grand total, . .	62,317	93,540	155,857

Manufactures and Trade.—Most of the trades characteristic of a large city are represented in Bangalore. In former years the production of raw silk was a flourishing industry, confined to the Muhammadan section of the community, but it has now greatly declined owing to continued mortality among the worms. Silks of durable texture and brilliant patterns are still woven by *patvegárs*, and sold by weight at from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per *tolá*. The common country cotton cloth is made in large quantities, the finer kinds with silk borders. Bangalore is noted for its manufacture of carpets. The common drugget with reversible pattern, called *jamkháná*, sells at from 1s. to 2s. 6d. per square yard; the rugs and pile carpets (*ratná kambli*) fetch from 8s. per square yard upwards. The carpets made in the central jail, after Persian and Turkish designs, are in great demand even in the English market. Other specialties are the manufacture of gold and silver lace, and of electro-plating and the tanning of leather. The handicrafts, stimulated by the presence of European civilisation, include printing, book-binding, lithography, photography, coach-building, and cabinet-making. A steam woollen factory has lately been started, and is fairly successful. In both quarters of the town are busy markets. In the *pét*, the public market is situated between the fort and the Mysore gate. But business is conducted everywhere amid the crowded thoroughfares, especially at open stalls along either side of the Doddapét. The European shops are mostly in the cantonment *bázár*, in which also a commodious and well-kept market-place has recently been laid out. The Bangalore branch of the Madras Railway has its terminus in Bangalore. Its total length from the Jollarpét junction is 84 miles, of which 53 lie within the limits of the State of Mysore, with 3 stations exclusive of the terminus. There were in 1881 altogether 29 joint-stock companies for banking or trade, registered in Bangalore city. The

largest is the Bangalore Bank, established in 1868 with a capital of £70,000.

Administration.—The municipality of Bangalore consists of two distinct boards, one for the *pét*, and one for the cantonments, but both under one president. The members of the two boards consist of Commissioners nominated by Government to represent the interests of the several wards or divisions, together with eleven *ex officio* members. The following tables show the municipal balance-sheet for the year 1880-81:—

RECEIPTS OF THE BANGALORE CITY AND CANTONMENT MUNICIPALITIES FOR 1880-81.

	Pét.	Cantonments.
Octroi on tobacco, betel-leaf, and areca-nut,	£2194	£4360
Tax on buildings and lands,	699	4531
Tax on professions and trades,	1912	2359
Rents,	646	623
Fines,	17	66
Miscellaneous,	525	2528
Total,	£5993	£14,467

EXPENDITURE OF THE BANGALORE CITY AND CANTONMENT MUNICIPALITIES FOR 1880-81.

	Pét.	Cantonments.
Collection,	£487	£1154
Head office charges,	493	890
Public works,	1239	4880
Police,	1820	2010
Conservancy,	958	2059
Road-watering,	6	103
Lighting,	226	765
Miscellaneous,	350	870
Water supply,	220	80
Registration and sanitary charges,	64	513
Total,	£5863	£13,324

The total income of the two municipal boards in 1880-81 amounted to £20,460, or an average of 2s. 7½d. per head of the population, 155,807, within municipal limits. In the year 1881, the total strength of the municipal police force was 297 officers and men, maintained at an aggregate cost of £7448, of which £3806 was paid from municipal sources. These figures show 1 policeman to every 525 of the population, and a charge upon the taxpayer of 11½d. per head. In the same year, the military force stationed in the cantonments consisted of 1 battery of horse artillery, and 2 field batteries; 1 regiment of European cavalry, and 1 regiment of European infantry; 4 companies of sappers

and miners, and 2 regiments of Madras Native Infantry. In former days the strength of the garrison at Bangalore was much greater. The Bangalore Rifle Volunteers (a force first enrolled in 1868) consists of 4 companies, numbering 356 officers and men, and a cadet company 59 strong.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bangalore is noted for its healthiness, being well suited to the constitutions both of Europeans and natives. The mean annual temperature is 76·2° F.; the average annual rainfall is 36 inches. The registration returns for 1880 show a death-rate in the *pét* of 16·93 per 1000, and a birth-rate of 18·80; in the cantonments the death-rate was 14·72 per 1000, and the birth-rate, 22·19. There was a severe outbreak of cholera in the cantonments in 1875; the death-rate in that year was 20·54 per 1000.

Bangánapalli.—Estate in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras.—*See* BANAGANAPALLI.

Bángangá (*Utangan*).—A river of Rájputána; rises in the hills near Manoharpur, about 25 miles due north of Jaipur (Jeypore), and flows south-east for about 25 miles, until it reaches a range of hills near Rámgarh. After forcing its way through these hills in a deep gorge, about 1 mile in length, from 350 to 500 feet wide and 400 feet deep, it continues its course due east for about 65 miles, when it enters the Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State near Mowah, at a point about 65 miles east of the range of hills above mentioned. It is crossed by the Rájputána State Railway. The stream in the gorge near Rámgarh is perennial, but below this point the bed dries up except during the rains. The banks are generally about 20 feet in height, and clearly defined. In floods, which last for a few hours, the stream becomes impassable, and in the gorge near Rámgarh, the water rises sometimes to a height of 23 feet. After flowing through Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) and Dholpur States into Agra District, North-Western Provinces, it joins the Jumna (Jamuná) in lat. 27° N. and long. 78° 32′ E., after a course of about 200 miles. A temple, called Jumwa-Devi, situated in the gorge, is visited by the Rájás of Jaipur on their accession to the *gadi*. Here they are shaved, the process being part of the ceremony connected with the accession.

Bángangá (*Arrow-river*).—A hill stream rising in the south of Nepál, which, after forming the boundary between Nepál State and the Oudh *tarai*, flows into Basti District, and after a course of about 18 miles joins the Búrhi Rápti at Karmani-ghát. A considerable quantity of timber is floated down this river from the Nepál forests.

Bangáon (*Bongong*).—Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal, lying between 22° 52′ and 23° 25′ 15″ N. lat., and between 88° 42′ and 89° 4′ 45″ E. long.; area, 649 square miles; population (1881) 362,126, comprising 136,883 Hindus, 225,208 Muhammadans, and 35 'others;'

number of towns or villages, 736—of houses, 70,236, of which 68,144 are occupied; average density of the population, 558 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·19, and of houses, 108·22; number of persons per occupied house, 4·82. The Sub-division was created in 1860, and comprises the 5 *thánás* (police circles) of Bangáon, Maheshpur, Ganapota, Sarsha, and Gaigháta. In 1883, it contained 1 criminal and 3 civil courts; strength of regular police, 78 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 850.

Bangar.—*Parganá* in Hardoi *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Barwán, on the east by Gopámau and Bálamau (the river Sai marking the boundary line), on the south by Mallánwán, and on the west by Sándi and Bilgrám *parganás*. Formerly included in Bilgrám *parganá*, and separated from it in 1807. A populous and fairly-tilled tract, well wooded and watered, comprising an area of 143 square miles, of which 85 are cultivated. Numerous *jhíls* and wells afford the means of irrigation. Staple products—barley, *bájrá*, wheat, *arhar*, and gram. Government land revenue, £8599; population (1881) 65,652, viz. 36,392 males and 29,260 females. The different tenures under which the villages are held are—*tálukdárí*, 13 villages; *zamíndárí*, 38; *pattídárí*, 44; *bháyáchára*, 1. The chief landed proprietors are the Chamár Gaurs, who hold 44½ villages; the Gohelwárs and Dhakarás hold 19 each; Káyasths, 10; Sayyids, 2; and Bráhmans and Ahírs, 1 each. Four unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*; and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which runs within a mile of the eastern border, affords another means of communication. HARDOI TOWN, the head-quarters of the District, is situated in the northern apex of the *parganá*. Schools at Hardoi and two other villages. Three bi-weekly markets.

Bángarmau. — *Parganá* in Safipur *tahsíl*, Unáo District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mallánwán and Kachhandan *parganás* in Hardoi District, on the east by Mohán and Asíwan, on the south by Fatehpur, and on the west by the Ganges river, which separates it from Cawnpur District. A small *parganá*, 19 miles long and 14 broad, comprising an area of 175 square miles or 112,377 acres, of which 65,833 are cultivated and 26,104 cultivable but not under the plough, while the rest is barren. Soil chiefly loam and clay. Government land revenue, £13,714, at the rate of 2s. 3d. per acre. Land is held under the different tenures as follows:— *Tálukdárí*, 25,600 acres; *pukhtadárí*, 1986; *zamíndárí*, 53,741; *bháyáchára*, 1865; *pattídárí*, 28,776, and Government, 408 acres. Population (1881) 92,656, viz. 49,225 males and 43,431 females: number of villages, 149; 7 bi-weekly markets, and 2 small fairs near the Ganges.

Bángarmau.—Town in Safipur *tahsíl*, Unáo District, Oudh, on the road from Unáo to Hardoi; 31 miles from the former town. Lat. 26°

53′ 25″ N., long. 80° 15′ 10″ E. Founded by a Muhammadan saint, Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, about 1300 A.D. At that time the neighbouring village of Newar was in possession of a Hindu Rájá, who sent a band of men to drive the Muhammadan away, whereupon, according to the local legend, the holy man cursed him so that he and all his people perished, and the town of Newar was annihilated. Its ruins are still to be seen. On Alá-ud-dín's death a shrine was built over his grave, which is still in the possession of his descendants. It was formerly rich and famous, but has now decayed in popular esteem, and has lost great part of the revenues with which it was endowed. Population (1881) 6350, comprising 3659 Hindus and 2691 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 115 acres. The town is reported to be decreasing in population year by year. Of the houses, nearly one-half are of masonry; 13 mosques, and 13 Hindu temples; school; bi-weekly market; post-office; *sarai*, or native inn; police station.

Baniáchang. — Village in the Habiganj Sub-division of Sylhet District, Assam. Lat. 24° 31′ N., long. 91° 24′ E. It is said to have been founded in the first half of the 18th century by Abed Rezá, the first of the family of the old Hindu Rájás of Laur who submitted to pay tribute to the Mughals and embraced Muhammadanism. There is a mosque of great local repute. *Kasba* Baniáchang has an area of 4·4 square miles, but the population (1881), 24,061 in number, is scattered over a wider area than the *kasba* strictly so called. It is a great congeries of huts, built on the sides of numerous tanks, some of which are of considerable size. Baniáchang is now the head-quarters of a police circle (*tháná*).

Bánihal.—Pass in Kashmír State, Punjab, lying over a range of the Himálayas. Elevation above the sea, 8500 to 9000 feet. Lat. 33° 21′ N., long. 75° 20′ E.

Bánká.—Sub-division of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 24° 32′ 30″ and 25° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 32′ 45″ and 87° 13′ E. long.; area, 1185 square miles; population (1881) 420,379, comprising 382,858 Hindus, 27,683 Muhammadans, 5 Christians, 7511 Santáls, and 2322 Kols; average density of population, 355 per square mile; number of villages, 2546; houses, 74,629, of which 70,184 are occupied; number of villages per square mile, 2·15, of occupied houses, 62·98; persons per village, 355; persons per house, 5·99. The Sub-division comprises the three *thánás* (police circles) of Umarpur, Bánká, and Katuriyá. In 1883, it contained one civil or *munsif's* court, and two criminal courts, namely, the Sub-divisional Magistrate's Court, and a Court of Bench Magistrates. Strength of regular police, 63 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 977. Throughout the Sub-division, demon-worship, and especially the worship of the Bráhman demon Dube Bháiran, is prevalent. For the local legend connected

with his name, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 89–91.

Bánká.—Small town on the Chándan river in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; and head-quarters of the Bánká Sub-division. Lat. 24° 33′ N., long. 86° 58′ 5″ E.

Bánká Canal.—The name given to the first reach of the Rúpnáráyan and Rasúlpur Canal in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 6′ to 22° 12′ N., long. 88° to 88° 4′ E. It extends from near the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan at Goonkháli, to the Haldí river, a distance of 11 miles, with a top width of 80 feet, a bottom width of 40 feet, and a depth of 9½ feet. It is a tidal canal, navigable throughout the year. —*See also* RUPNARAYAN.

Bankaner.—Chief town of the small outlying *parganá* of Bankaner, in Gwalior territory, Central India. Situated on the river Mán, about 30 miles south of Amjhera.

Bankápur.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 343 square miles, containing 1 town and 141 villages. Population (1881) 76,554, of whom 38,264 were returned as males, and 38,290 as females. Hindus numbered 63,637; Muhammadans, 11,234; 'others,' 1683.

Bankápur. — Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 6037, namely, Hindus, 4287; Muhammadans, 1739; and Jains, 11. Area of town site, 283 acres. Post-office.

Bankheri.—Town in Sohágpur *tahsíl*, Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2643, namely, Hindus, 1914; Kabírpanthís, 8; Muhammadans, 349; Christians, 3; Jains, 51; aboriginal tribes, 314; and 'others,' 4. Railway station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Bankí.—Government Estate in Orissa, formerly a Feudatory Chiefship, lying between 20° 15′ 30″ and 20° 30′ N. lat., and between 85° 23′ and 85° 40′ E. long; area, 116 square miles; population (1881) 56,900 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Mahánadí river (separating it from the States of Barambá and Tigariá), on the east by the District of Cuttack, on the south by the District of Purí, and on the west by Khandpárá State. A small portion of the State lies north of the Mahánadí.

From 1805 to 1840, Bánkí paid an annual tribute to the Government of £443, but in the latter year the State was confiscated, owing to the Rájá having been convicted of murder and sentenced to imprisonment for life. From that time it has been under the direct management of the Bengal Government, being included within the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Cuttack. Since being taken under British administration, the estate has steadily increased in prosperity. In 1860–61, Bánkí yielded a revenue of £1333, which ten years later (1870–71)

had increased to £1996, and at the end of the next decade, in 1880-81, to £3414. The population of the estate, which in 1872 amounted to 49,426, had increased in 1881 to 56,900, namely 28,448 males, and 28,452 females, inhabiting 177 villages, and occupying 9181 houses; density of population, 490·52 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·53; houses per square mile, 91·88; persons per occupied house, 6·20. Divided according to religion, Hindus number 56,619, or 99·5 per cent. The rest of the population is made up of 270 Muhammadans and 11 Christians. The religious classification by no means coincides with the ethnical division, as aboriginal tribes, numbering 4529 in number, are returned as Hindus by religion. Among the Hindus of undoubted recognised caste are the following:—Bráhman, 5795; Chásá, or cultivators, the most numerous caste in the estate, 12,781; Goálá, 4673; Teli, 3628; Keut, 3492; and Khandait, 2191. On a comparison of these figures with those for the Tributary States of Orissa, it will be seen that Bánki is by far the most densely populated of all, and that the proportion of Hindus is much greater, and that of aboriginal tribes less, than in any of the rest. The principal village is Bánkí, on the south bank of the Mahánadí (lat. 20° 21′ 30″ N., long. 85° 33′ 11″ E.). There is a head police station at Chárchiká, with outposts at Báideswar, Kalápathar, and Subarnapur. The total police force is 194 strong. Bánkí contained in 1872, 2 schools, attended by 116 pupils; and there were in the same year 31 village schools, attendance unknown. The Census of 1881 returned 735 boys as under instruction, and 1181 other males as able to read and write, out of a total male population of 28,448.

Bánkípur.—The civil station of Patná, and administrative head-quarters of Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 36′ 40″ N., long. 85° 10′ 50″ E. Forms a western suburb of PATNA city, and is inhabited almost entirely by the European residents of that town. The population is included in the Census returns for Patná city. The houses of the Europeans, and the police lines, judicial courts, and other public buildings, extend for the most part along the old bank of the Ganges. The railway station (East Indian Railway, and Patná and Gáya State Railway) is in the quarter called Míthápur. About a mile from it is the *Golá*, or store-house, of which an account will be found in the article on Patná city. Bánkípur has a *maidán* or common, a church, jail, dispensary, racket-court, and billiard-room. There is no trade except in the articles of food, etc., required by the European residents. During the dry weather the stream of the Ganges is about a mile distant, but in the floods there is a backwater which refills the old channel close to the station. The distance of Bánkípur from Calcutta by rail is 338 miles. There is a second railway station at Patná city, 6 miles by rail from Bánkípur.

Bánkípur.—Ancient village on the Húglí river, near the modern Palta above Barrackpur. The name of this village has disappeared from the map, and its site can only be identified from the records of the military transactions in the last century, and from a chart of that period. It formed the principal settlement of the ill-fated Ostend Company in India. The Emperor of Austria, desirous of procuring a share of the East Indian trade, incorporated the Ostend Company in 1722–23, its factors being chiefly persons who had served in the Dutch and English companies. This was the one great effort made by Germany to secure a foothold in India. The Ostend Company, with a capital of twenty millions of livres (less than a million sterling), founded two settlements; one at 'Coblom' (Covelong) between the English Madras and the Dutch Sadras on the south-eastern coast, the other between the English Calcutta and the Dutch Chinsura on the Húglí in Bengal. Both of these German settlements were regarded with animosity by the English and the Dutch—an animosity felt also by the French, whose adjacent settlements at Pondicherri on the Madras coast, and Chandarnagar on the Húglí, were also threatened by the new company. The result was, that in order to obtain the European guarantee for the pragmatic sanction in 1727, the Court of Vienna resolved to sacrifice the Ostend Company. To save its honour, the sacrifice took the form of a suspension of the Company's charter for seven years. But the Company was practically doomed by the maritime powers of Europe. After a miserable existence it became bankrupt in 1784, and was formally abolished in 1793. Meanwhile, the Dutch and English in Bengal had taken the law into their own hands. In 1733, they stirred up the Muhammadan general (*Faujdár*) at Húglí to pick a quarrel, in the name of the Delhi Emperor, with the little German Settlement at Bánkípur, which lay about eight miles below Húglí town on the opposite side of the river. The Muhammadan troops besieged Bánkípur; and the garrison, consisting of only 14 persons, after a despairing resistance against overwhelming numbers, abandoned the place, and set sail for Europe. The Ostend agent lost his right arm by a cannon ball during the engagement; and the Ostend Company, together with the German interests which it represented, became thenceforth merely a name in Bengal —a name which, as already mentioned, soon disappeared from the maps.

Bánkomundí.—Mountain peak in the north of Bod State, Orissa; height, 2080 feet. Lat. 20° 42′ 24″ N., long. 84° 20′ 18″ E.

Bánkot.—Seaport on the creek of the same name in Ratnagiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 58′ 30″ N., long. 73° 5′ 10″ E. Situated on the Savitri river, 10 miles north-north-west from Savaradrúg fort. The channel is on the south-east side of the river entrance, and

is narrow. The bar, which is about a mile outside of the rocky cliffs, and 2 miles west-south-west of Fort Victoria, has 9 feet at low water, while the rise of the tide is 11 feet at ordinary springs, and 6 or 7 feet at neaps; it is well buoyed.

Bánkurá.—District of the Bardwán Division, within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 40′ and 23° 37′ N. lat., and between 86° 38′ and 87° 47′ E. long.; area, 2621 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,041,752 souls. The District forms, in shape, an irregular triangle, with its apex to the north. Bounded on the north and east by Bardwán District, the Dámodar river marking the boundary for most of the distance; on the south by Midnapur; and on the west by Mánbhúm. The chief town and administrative head-quarters of the District are at BANKURA town.

Physical Aspects.—Bánkurá forms the connecting link between the plains of Bengal on the east and the highlands of Chutiá Nágpur on the west. In the east of the District, where it adjoins Bardwán, the scenery presents the ordinary features which characterise the lowlands of Bengal. The country is flat and the land alluvial and well suited for the cultivation of paddy. Proceeding in a westerly or northerly direction, the character of the scenery gradually changes; the land becomes more and more undulating, while patches of jungle and rocky boulders appear, succeeded by forest-crowned hills, which gradually increase in height until they reach an elevation of more than 1400 feet above sea level. Of these hills, the most prominent is Susuniá (1442 feet), which forms a prominent feature in the landscape. It was formerly quarried on its southern face by the Bardwán Stone Company, but the works have now (1883) been closed. The jungle which covers this hill and the western part of the District generally, is the home of tigers, leopards, small but fierce bears, and many other wild animals, and shelters the cobra and every variety of Indian snake. Here, too, large supplies of lac and *tasar* are obtained, the gathering of which gives occupation to the poorer classes of the people, especially Santáls and Báuris. The principal rivers of the District are the DAMODAR and the DHALKISOR or Dwárkeswar, which, although insignificant streams during the hot weather, become navigable in the rains (from the middle of July to the middle of October) by boats of 50 to 60 tons burden. At times, during the rainy season, these rivers rise so suddenly, owing to the flow of rain-water from the neighbouring hills, that a head-wave is formed, called the *hurpá bán*, not unlike the *bore* or tidal wave in the Húglí, which often causes loss of life and great destruction of property. The other streams are the Silái and Kansái, which flow through the south-western part of the District, recently added to it from Mánbhúm. There are no lakes, or canals, or artificial watercourses in the District. Near the town of Bishnupur, and within

the old fortifications, are several picturesque tanks, or artificial lakes, constructed by the ancient Rájás, who, taking advantage of natural hollows, threw embankments across them to confine the surface drainage. The mineral products of the District consist of lime, iron, and building stone. The lime produced is obtained from the *ghutin* or nodular limestone, which is found in abundance on the surface of the ground, or a few inches below it. The iron is the produce of the ferruginous laterite with which the District abounds. Very little of it is manufactured, and that only by the Santáls and aboriginal tribes inhabiting the western frontier, for their own wants. Building stone is found in unlimited quantities in the hills and uplands, but the quarries are not now worked. The difficulty and expense of carriage to market is the chief obstacle to the development of these quarries. Although the rich coal-field of Ráníganj is situated just beyond the northern border of the District, no coal has been found within Bánkurá, and it is asserted that the existence of coal south of the Dámodar is a geological impossibility. There are no revenue-yielding forests in the District, but several *sál* tracts are kept as jungle, and cut in part either yearly for sale as firewood, or at longer intervals for sale as saplings. Large supplies of lac and *tasar* silk are obtained from the western jungles, the gathering of which affords occupation to many of the poorer classes, chiefly Santáls and Bauris. Tigers, leopards, small but fierce bears, hyænas, wolves, deer, and wild hog frequent the jungle tracts along the western boundary; wild elephants also occasionally invade the District from the Santál Parganás and the Districts of Chutiá Nágpur on the west. Almost every variety of Indian snake is found in Bánkurá, pythons being often met with in the hills. The *gokura* (cobra), *karáit*, and other deadly serpents are also common.

Bánkurá was formerly situated within the *chaklá* of Bardwán, and was with it ceded to the East India Company on the 27th September 1760. For some time after the English obtained the *diwáni* of the whole province of Bengal, the Bishnupur *zamíndárí*, as Bánkurá was then called, formed a part of Bírbhúm District, and remained so until 1793, when, by order of the Board of Revenue, it was transferred to Bardwán. By Regulation xviii. of 1805, Bishnupur was included in the newly-established Jungle Maháls, and continued to form part of that District until 1833. In 1835–36, it was created a separate Collectorate. Numerous changes of boundary, and the old-standing discrepancies between the revenue, judicial, and police jurisdictions, long caused confusion. But in 1872, the transfer to Bardwán of *parganás* Sonámukhí, Indás, and Kotalpur in the east, and Shergarh and Senpahárí in the north, and the addition of Chátná *thána* (from Mánbhúm) on the west, rendered the jurisdictions almost conterminous. Since then,

a further re-transfer of territories from Bardwán has nearly doubled the former area of the District, which in 1872 was returned at 1346 square miles. Its present area is 2621 square miles.

History.—The historical interest of the District centres in the town of BISHNUPUR, which formerly gave its name to the surrounding country. The Rájá of Bishnupur is the descendant of one of the ancient Hindu petty dynasties which formerly held the Bengal frontier against the jungle tribes of the inner plateau on the west. A full account of the family, taken from their native chronicles, will be found in my *Annals of Rural Bengal.*

A long list of kings is recorded, one of whom built tanks and embanked lakes; another raised temples and set up idols; a third encouraged trade; and a fourth spent his time in war. In the beginning of the 11th century we read that 'Bishnupur was the most renowned city in the world, and it became more beautiful than the beautified house of Indra in heaven. The buildings were of pure white stone. Within the walls of the palace were theatres, embellished rooms, dwelling-houses, and dressing-rooms. There were also houses for elephants, barracks for soldiers, stables, storehouses, armouries, a treasury, and a temple.' Three hundred years later the fort was strengthened, the Governor had orders to prepare a new uniform for his army, and so on.

In later history, the family figures in turn as the enemy, the ally, and the tributary of the Musalmán Nawábs. It was exempted from personal attendance at the Court of Murshidábád, and appeared by a representative or a Resident at the Darbár. During the 18th century, the Bishnupur house declined. Impoverished by Maráthá raids and Muhammadan extortions, it finally succumbed beneath the famine of 1770, which left the country almost bare of inhabitants. More than one-half of the estate relapsed into jungle, and the family was reduced to such poverty that the Rájá was compelled to pawn his household idol, Madan Mohan (a remnant of aboriginal worship), with one Gokul Chandra Mitra of Calcutta. Some time after, the unfortunate prince with great difficulty managed to collect the amount required to redeem it, and sent his minister to Calcutta to obtain back the pledge. Gokul received the money, but refused to restore the idol. The case was brought before the Supreme Court at Calcutta, and decided in favour of the Rájá; whereupon Gokul caused a second idol to be made, exactly resembling the original, and presented it to the Rájá. The earlier years of British administration intensified rather than relieved the difficulties of the house of Bishnupur. The Rájás insisted upon maintaining a military array which was no longer required under English rule, and for the support of which their revenues were altogether inadequate. The new system protected them from Maráthá raids and

Muhammadan oppressions; but, on the other hand, it sternly put down their own irregular exactions from the peasantry, enforced the punctual payment of the land tax, and realized arrears by sale of the hereditary estates. The Bishnupur family never recovered from the indigence to which they were reduced by the famine of 1770, and their possessions in the District have passed to new and more energetic families. Bishnupur is now in ruins; the palace, with its armouries and theatre and embellished rooms, has disappeared; the interior of the fort is a jungle, in the middle of which lies peacefully an immense roughly-fashioned gun—12½ feet in length—the gift, according to native tradition, of a deity to one of the Rájás.

Population.—The population of the District in 1872, according to the Census of that year, but allowing for recent transfers, which has increased the area from 1346 to 2621 square miles, was 968,597. The Census of 1881 returned a population of 1,041,752, showing an increase of 73,155 or 7·55 per cent. in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 507,136, and the female 534,616. Area of District, 2621 square miles; average density of population, 397·46 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 5460; villages per square mile, 2·08; number of occupied houses, 168,321, with an average of 6·19 inmates each; unoccupied houses, 14,916. Classified according to religion, the population was returned as follows:—Hindus, 910,845, or 87·44 per cent.; Muhammadans, 46,274, or 4·42 per cent.; Christians, 56; and 'others' (chiefly aboriginal tribes professing various primitive faiths), 84,557, or 8·12 per cent. Among the Hindu population, the high and respectable castes included — Bráhmans, 84,322; Rájputs, 13,987; Káyasths, 20,575; and Baniyás, 31,337. The other castes in the District over 10,000 in number were—Sadgop, 45,216; Kúrmí, 11,810 —the two best cultivating castes; Tambuli, 16,091; Napit, 12,262; Gwálá, 59,652; Tánti, 29,320; Teli, 74,127; Lohár, 37,835; Kaibartta, 25,250; Kalu, 21,308; Sunri, 21,350; and the three lowest or semi-aboriginal castes — Bauri, the most numerous in the District, 117,548; Bagdi, 47,146; and Dom, 17,581. Caste-rejecting Hindus numbered 20,397, of whom 20,325 were returned as Vaishnavs. Of aboriginal tribes still professing their ancient faiths, the most numerous were the Santáls, 84,559 in number, besides 20,034 who have accepted Hinduism. The aboriginal tribe of Bhumijs, 18,129, are all returned as Hindus by religion. Of the 46,274 Muhammadans, 44,390 belonged to the Sunní sect. Of the 56 Christians, 15 were Europeans, 11 Eurasians, and 30 Natives of India or Asiatics. The occupations of the male population are returned in the Census in six general classes, as follow:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 11,983; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 7652; (3) com-

mercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 9874; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 176,438; (5) manufacturing, artisan, mining and other industrial classes, 40,132; (6) indefinite and non-productive class (comprising 54,993 general labourers, 1515 men of rank and property, and 204,549 unspecified, including male children), 261,057. The population is almost entirely rural. There are 3952 villages containing fewer than two hundred inhabitants; 1147 with from two hundred to five hundred; 268 with from five hundred to a thousand; 73 with from one to two thousand; 11 with from two to three thousand; 4 with from three to five thousand; 3 with from five to ten thousand; and 2 with from fifteen to twenty thousand inhabitants. The five towns with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, are—Bánkurá, 18,747; Bishnupur, 18,863; Patroshair, 7026; Kotalpur, 6163; and Sonámukhí, 5590. Bánkurá is a backward District, and the general condition of the people, as compared with the adjoining eastern Districts, is one of poverty. This is especially apparent in the jungle tracts. In the lowland villages, the cultivators are better off; but even here, few show signs of a high standard of comfort, either in personal appearance or in the construction of their houses.

BANKURA, the chief town and administrative head-quarters of the District, is situated on the north bank of the Dhalkisor river. BISHNUPUR, farther south, was the ancient capital of the District under its native Rájás. It is described by Colonel Gastrel[1] as having been once strongly fortified 'by a long connected line of curtains and bastions measuring 7 miles in length, with small circular ravelins covering many of the curtains. Within this outer line of fortifications, and west of the city, lay the citadel. The remains of these defences still exist. The Rájá's palace was situated within the citadel. What it may have been in the palmy days of its ancient chieftains it is difficult to say. But at present, a very insignificant pile of brick buildings surrounded by ruins marks the site.' These ruins, among which are many remains of temples, are of different ages and styles of architecture. The modern city contains the public offices, several schools, and many Hindu and Muhammadan temples. The houses are very poor, although many of the inhabitants are wealthy,—a circumstance which is explained by the statement that the rapacity of former Rájás was so great, that it was dangerous for any one to show signs of wealth; and the custom of building mean dwellings has been handed down from father to son. Of the villages of Bánkurá, the following are deserving of mention:—(1) Ondá, a large village and head-quarters of a police circle containing a subordinate Judge's Court, and situated near the south bank of the Dhalkisor river, about half way between the towns of Bánkurá and

[1] Statistical and Geographical Report on Bánkurá District.

Bishnupur. (2) Chátná, a village and head-quarters of a police circle in the south-west of the District, situated within the tract, recently transferred from Mánbhúm. (3) Gangájalgháti, a considerable village and head-quarters of a police circle, situated in the north-west of the District. (4) Barjorá, a large trading village and police outpost station, a few miles south of the Dámodar in the north-east of the District. (5) Rájgrám, a large trading village near Bánkurá town.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bánkurá, as throughout the rest of Bengal, is rice. The *áman* or winter crop is sown in April or May (the ground having been previously four times ploughed), transplanted in July or August, and reaped about December; the *áus* or autumn rice is sown broadcast in May, and reaped in September. Among the other crops raised in the District are oil-seeds (mustard, *til*, and *sárgujá*), *matar* (peas), and *chholá* (gram), cotton, flax, hemp, indigo, sugar-cane, and *pán*. Cotton is gathered in March or April, and indigo generally in July. There are, however, two seasons for sowing indigo, one in February or March, and the other about October. The cultivation of indigo is not increasing, owing partly to the uncertainty of the spring rainfall of late years, and partly to the fact that the soil is not very well suited to this crop. Irrigation is necessary for all kinds of crops in Bánkurá, and is effected by means of wells and tanks where natural watercourses and streams are not available; the cost of irrigation varies considerably throughout the District, being for rice land from 9s. to 15s. an acre, and for sugar-cane land from 18s. to £1, 16s. an acre. Manure, consisting of rich black mud scraped from the bottom of tanks or reservoirs and mixed with ashes and stubble, is used for rich fields, and for more valuable crops cow-dung is added; the cost varies from 4s. 6d. to 9s. an acre. On all lands growing sugar-cane and other exhausting staples, rotation is observed, the cane being generally followed by *til*, after which a crop is taken of *áus* or autumn rice, succeeded by mustard (often mixed with peas). Although spare land fit for tillage is scarce in the District, tenures are not unfavourable to the cultivator. As in other parts of Bengal, the land is let and sub-let to a great extent, many middlemen coming between the proprietor and the cultivator. The tenures are generally of the ordinary descriptions, the only one of special interest being 43 *ghátwálí* estates held subject to payment of a light quit-rent to Government. This quit-rent was originally payable to the Rájá of Bishnupur, on account of service lands held by the *ghátwáls* or officers appointed for the defence of certain passes against the inroads of the Maráthás and others. who made frequent plundering expeditions into the country. The *ghátwálí* estates were annexed to the regular rent-paying lands at the time of the Decennial Settlement; and on the application of the Bishnupur Rájá, who found that he had

no control over their services, the *ghátwáls* were taken over by the Government, the revenue paid by the Rájá to the State being reduced by the amount he had received from them. Spare land fit for tillage is scarce in the District. Tenures, however, are not unfavourable to the cultivators; and that there is a certain quantity of surplus cultivable land is shown by the fact that a class of peasants, known as *sájás*, only hold their lands on a yearly lease, and lead a wandering life from village to village, settling down for the time wherever they can get their temporary holdings on the best terms, and paying their rent in kind. The peasantry are almost invariably in debt, and almost all are tenants-at-will. Very few cases occur of small proprietors who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands, without either a superior landlord above, or a sub-tenant or labourer below them. A holding exceeding 17 acres in extent is considered an exceptionally large farm, while one below 3⅓ acres is exceptionally small. A peasant with a small farm of 5 acres is not so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper, or a man drawing a pay of Rs. 8, or 16s. a month. Wages and prices have considerably increased in the District of late years. In 1860, the price of the best cleaned rice was 2s. 10½d. a cwt.; in 1871, it had risen to 4s. 5d.; the price of sugar-cane in 1860 was 8½d., and in 1871, 1s. 8d. a cwt. The present wage of coolies and agricultural day-labourers is 3d. per diem; formerly they received about half that sum. No marked change has taken place in the rates of rent since the Permanent Settlement; the present rates for rice land are from 9s. to 18s. an acre; for inferior land, 3s. to 12s.; the rates for land suitable for the cultivation of cotton, sugar-cane, and other superior crops are of course higher, £1, 17s. 6d. an acre being given for such land, and £2, 14s. for land yielding two crops.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to drought, occasioned by a deficiency in the rainfall, which is attributed to the indiscriminate clearing of jungle. As there are very few patches of low marshy land in the District which retain moisture for a considerable time, a year of general drought results in serious calamity. Inundations occur every year, owing to the suddenness with which the rivers and streams rise in the rainy season, and the lands bordering on the rivers suffer accordingly,—so much so that in many places they are permanently allowed to remain waste and uncultivated. Drought in Bánkurá District arises solely from a deficiency in the local rainfall, and not from the failure of the rivers or streams to bring down their usual supply of water. Nothing has been done to guard against the calamity of drought. The famine of 1866, which followed a season of drought, affected Bánkurá principally in the western portion, the tract adjoining Bárdwán not suffering at all seriously. The number of paupers relieved during the months of July, August, September, and October 1866, was 33,216;

the total sum placed at the disposal of the Relief Committee was £3044. Four relief depôts were opened. The price of coarse rice rose from 7s. 5d. a cwt. in January, to 18s. 8d. in August, and £1, 1s. 4d. in September. In 1874–75 drought was the occasion of another famine in Bánkurá District. Energetic measures were at once taken on the first appearance of distress; 28 relief centres were established, and a sum of £10,000 was placed at the disposal of the District Relief Committee for gratuitous relief. Roads were constructed to give employment to the able-bodied, and liberal grain and *takávi* advances were made to the cultivators. Abundant harvests in the two succeeding years soon restored the District to prosperity, and prices of grain speedily returned to their ordinary rates.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal manufactures of Bánkurá District are silk and cotton fabrics. Bishnupur town contains a large weaving population, and is noted for the prettily embroidered silk scarfs and fine cloths of silk and cotton there manufactured. Plates, cups, etc., of a kind of soap-stone, are also carved at Bishnupur by the local stone-cutters; the stone, which is brought from Mánbhúm, is of a grey colour, close-grained and compact, and easily cut. The District manufactures suffice to meet the local demand, and a considerable surplus is left over for exportation to other Districts and to Calcutta. The chief articles of export are rice, oil-seeds, cotton, and silk cloth, silk cocoons, and lac; the imports are English piece-goods, salt, tobacco, spices, etc. The exports are considerably more valuable than the imports, and coin is consequently accumulating in the District. Trade is carried on chiefly by means of permanent markets, and also through the medium of fairs. Bánkurá is well supplied with roads, and the transit of light loads by carts or pack-bullocks is easy in the cold and hot weather, though many of the common cart roads and tracks become impassable during the rains.

Administration.—The District administrative staff consists of a Collector-Magistrate, Joint-Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, 3 Deputy Magistrates, Deputy Commissioner of Police, Civil Surgeon, etc. Since Bánkurá was constituted a separate Collectorate in 1835–36, the District revenue has steadily increased. In that year the total revenue amounted to £40,670, and the total civil expenditure to £8006; by 1850–51, the revenue had increased to £50,736, and the civil expenditure to £17,511; in 1860–61, the revenue had further risen to £60,072, and the civil expenditure to £19,426; while in 1870–71, the total District revenue amounted to £69,130, and the civil expenditure to £25,441. During the thirty-five years, therefore, between 1835–36 and 1870–71, the District revenue increased by 72 per cent., and the civil expenditure by 217 per cent. Since the last-mentioned year the District area has undergone considerable change, owing to transfers to Bardwán on the

east, and annexations from Mánbhúm on the west, which have already been referred to. In 1880–81, the total District revenue amounted to £74,373, of which £45,853 was derived from the land tax. The regular police force consisted in 1880 of 2 superior and 53 subordinate officers, with 208 constables, maintained at a total cost, including all contingencies, of £5486. In addition there was a municipal police force of 7 officers and 127 men, maintained at a total cost of £875, defrayed by rates levied within municipal limits; and a rural force of village watchmen numbering 8345 men. Each village watchman has charge, on an average, of 30 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of £3, 4s. a year. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining these several police forces amounted, in 1880, to £33,065, equal to a charge of £12, 12s. 4d. per square mile, or 7½d. per head of the population. In 1880, the average daily number of prisoners in the Bánkurá jail and Bishnupur subsidiary prison, was 330·34, the total number of prisoners received during the year being 1719. Education is gradually making progress in the District. In 1856–57, the total number of Government and aided schools was 14, with 1354 pupils; in 1872–73, the returns showed 134 Government and 58 private schools, attended by 6425 pupils, costing £2970, of which Government contributed £1103. In 1880, the number of aided and inspected Primary Schools alone was 1186, attended by 29,568 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned a total of 30,599 boys as under instruction, and 54,133 other males as able to read and write, out of a total male population of 507,136. Of the female population of 534,616, only 507 girls were reported as under instruction, and 409 other females as able to read and write.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Bánkurá is oppressive and relaxing in the hot season, but from October to the end of February it is bracing and enjoyable; during the rains the District is not so damp and unhealthy as those farther east. The average annual mean temperature, according to the latest returns, is about 78·60° F.; the average rainfall for the 26 years ending 1881 was 56·47 inches. In 1881, the rainfall at Bánkurá town was returned at 73·27 inches, or 16·80 inches above the average. Intermittent fever is common in Bánkurá as in other Districts of Bengal, and is said to have been particularly severe at Bishnupur since the famine of 1866. Leprosy, diarrhœa, and dysentery are also common. Cholera is almost always present in a sporadic form, and sometimes becomes epidemic; outbreaks occurred in 1855, 1860, 1864, and 1866. Small-pox, too, is occasionally epidemic in the District. [For further particulars regarding Bánkurá District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iv. pp. 205 to 308 (Trübner, 1876); also for information regarding the state of the country on the accession of British rule, see my *Annals of Rural*

Mission School at Edwardesábád also receives a grant in aid. The following towns are municipalities constituted under Act iv. of 1873:—Edwardesábád, Laki, Isákhel, and Kálabágh. The aggregate population within municipal limits is 25,776, and the aggregate municipal income for the year 1881–82 amounted to £3637, or 2s. 9½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is marked by the usual Punjab characteristics of extreme heat during the summer months, and considerable cold during the winter. No record of temperature is kept. The Edwardesábád cantonment, and the irrigated portion of the Bannu valley generally, are extremely unhealthy, intermittent and remittent fevers being especially prevalent. Disease of the spleen is also very common among the Bannuchís. The rainy months are those of July and August. The Meteorological Report returns the average annual rainfall for the twenty years ending 1881 at 13·42 inches. The total rainfall in 1881 was 11·9 inches. The death-rate seems to be highest in November and December. [For further information regarding Bannu District, see the *Punjab Gazetteer* (Lahore 1884), the Punjab Census Report for 1881, and the *Provincial Administration Reports* for 1880 to 1882.]

Bannu.—*Tahsíl* of Bannu District, Punjab, forming the northern portion of the circular basin drained by the rivers Kurram and Tochi or Gambíla, and enclosed on three sides by lofty mountains. Lat. 32° 44′ 30″ to 33° 5′ 45″ N., long. 70° 24′ 30″ to 71° 0′ 30″ E. Inhabited by a mongrel Afghán tribe known as Bannuchís. Area, 445 square miles; population (1881) 107,159, namely, 59,396 males and 47,763 females; average density of population, 241 per square mile. Area under cultivation, 124,675 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl* (1883), £12,989. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant, 3 Assistant or extra-Assistant Commissioners, a *tahsíldár*, and a *munsif*. These officers preside over 7 civil and revenue and 6 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 111 men; of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 200.

Bannu (or *Edwardesábád*).—Head-quarters of Bannu District, Punjab.—*See* EDWARDESABAD.

Banpás.—Village in the head-quarters Sub-division of Bardwán District, Bengal. Population (1881) 3662. Noted for its manufacture of brass and bell-metal ware, and cutlery.

Bánpur.—Estate or *zamíndári* in Búrhá *tahsíl*, Bálághát District, Central Provinces.—*See* BHANPUR.

Bánsa.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 6 miles north-east of Mallánwán. Population (1881) 2304, living in 292 houses. A thriving village held by Kanaujia Kúrmis for upwards of seven centuries, to

the ancestors of whom the site was awarded for loyal services by the Hindu Rájá of Kanauj. School.

Bansa.—Village in Damoh *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated about 15 miles west of Damoh town. Population (1881) 2514, namely, Hindus, 2373; Kabírpanthi, 1; Muhammadans, 85; and aboriginal tribes, 55. Village school and police station. Manufacture of coarse cloth.

Bánsbáriá (or *Bánsbátí*, 'The Place of Bamboos').—Town on the Húglí river, in Húglí District, Bengal; 29 miles north of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 57′ 30″ N., long. 88° 26′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 7031, comprising 6371 Hindus and 660 Muhammadans; municipal income in 1882, £364. There is a famous temple with 13 pinnacles, and as many images of Siva, dedicated to the goddess Hanseswarí. It was built by Rání Sankarí Dásí, the wife of a *zamíndár* of the place, at a cost of a *lákh* of rupees (£10,000), and was formerly protected by an armed fort, armed with four cannon and surrounded by a trench, as a defence against the Maráthás. The temple occupies 15 acres of ground. There were formerly 12 or 14 *tols*, or Sanskrit schools (*see* NADIYA DISTRICT) at Bánsbáriá, but Sanskrit studies are now on the decline. Here, too, the first native Christian church under a native minister in this part of the country was formed, the pastor being an educated native named Táráchánd, who spoke English, French, and Portuguese with fluency.

Bánsdá (*Wánsdá*).—Native State within the Political Agency of Surat, in the Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 20° 42′ and 20° 56′ N. lat., and between 73° 18′ and 73° 34′ E. long.; bounded west by Surat District, north by the State of Baroda, east by the Dáng States, and south by the State of Dharampur; estimated area, 384 square miles; population (1881) 34,122; estimated gross revenue, £16,861; expenditure, £14,966, of which £2682 was spent on public works. There are 87 villages in the State. With the exception of a few villages bordering on the District of Surat, almost the whole country is covered with forest, the surface in some places being level and in others rising into rocks and small hills. The climate is unhealthy, fevers and other diseases prevailing throughout the year. There are some tracts of black soil, but over the greater part of the State the soil is light-coloured. Products—rice, gram, and pulse; manufactures—cotton tape, mats, fans, baskets, and coarse woollen carpets and cloth. The family of the chief are Hindus of Rájput extraction, claiming descent from the Solanki race of princes. The ruins of the fortified enclosure near Bánsdá, and of several temples and works of irrigation, point to a former period of prosperity. At one time the chiefs probably had possessions extending to the sea-coast; but by the advance of the Musalmáns they were gradually driven to seek refuge

in the more thickly-wooded parts of their dominions. The Maráthás seem to have been the first to bring the chiefs entirely into subjection and impose a tribute upon them. The right of levying this tribute was transferred by the Peshwá to the British by the treaty of Bassein (1802). The State now pays to the British Government a yearly tribute of £15. In 1856 an arrangement was entered into with the State for the payment annually of £150, in consideration of the British Government foregoing its share in transit duties, the State binding itself to limit its customs and transit duties to certain sanctioned rates.

The chief, who bears the title of Rájá, maintains a military force of 150 men, with 2 field and 12 other guns. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. The family follows the rule of primogeniture, and has received a *sanad*, or patent, authorizing adoption. In consequence of the death of the chief in February 1876, the State is administered by an officer of the British Government during the minority of his son. In 1883, the young chief was associated with the British joint administrator, in order to prepare him at as early a date as possible for investiture with full powers. There are 9 boys' schools and 1 girls' school in the State, with an average daily attendance of 414. At Unái, within the limits of this State, and 7 miles from Bánsdá, is a hot spring, the temperature of which is generally but little below boiling point; but once a year, at the time of the March full moon, the heat abates sufficiently to allow a company of pilgrims and devotees to bathe in it. The fair at this period is attended by some six or seven thousand people, and lasts for six days.

Bánsdá.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Guzerat, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 47′ 30″ N., long. 73° 28′ E.; population (1881) 2447. Dispensary, school, and post-office.

Bansdih.—*Tahsíl*, or Sub-division of Ballia District, North-Western Provinces, created in 1882 from parts of Rasra and Ballia *tahsíls*. It lies along the south or right bank of the Gogra (Ghágra), and is much intersected by side channels from that river. A considerable portion of the *tahsíl* is yearly flooded in the rainy season. Area, 374 square miles, of which 258 are cultivated. Population (1881) 287,352, or an average of 768 to the square mile. Land revenue (including cesses) £21,338; rental paid by cultivators, £52,608. In civil matters, the *tahsíl* is included within the jurisdiction of the *munsif* of Rásra. It contains 1 criminal court, with 3 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 55 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 433.

Bansdih.—Town in Ballia District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bansdih *tahsíl*. Lat. 25° 52′ 38″ N., long. 84° 15′ 30″ E. Situated on a level alluvial plain, 2 miles north-west of the Suráhá

Lake, and 8 miles south of the Gogra (Ghágra). Population (1881) 9617, namely, 9007 Hindus and 610 Muhammadans. A small municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of the Chaukídári Act (xx. of 1856). *Tahsili*; police station.

Bánsgáon.—*Tahsil* or Sub-division of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Rápti and the Gogra (Ghágra). Area, 616 square miles, of which 398 are cultivated; population (1881) 422,858; land revenue, £23,113; total revenue, £26,071; rental paid by cultivators, £72,792. The *tahsil* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 81 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 580.

Bánsgáon.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bánsgáon *tahsil*, 19 miles south of Gorakhpur town. Population in 1872, 3069; in 1881, 5873, namely, 5384 Hindus, 485 Muhammadans, and 4 'others.' The town or village is composed of 10 hamlets, the land around being held by a number of proprietors, some of whose holdings are so small as to be barely sufficient to support existence. Owing probably to the nearness of Gorakhpur town, into which the villagers carry their grain for sale, there is little local trade. A weekly market is held every Friday, and an annual fair in September–October. *Tahsili*, police station, post-office, Government school, and rest-house (*dharmsála*). Two Hindu temples, and one mosque.

Bánsgáon.—Agricultural village in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, situated 64 miles by road east of Gorakhpur town. Said to have been founded by Bhuínhárs from the south, and still containing many Bhuínhár inhabitants. Village school.

Bánsgáon.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal. Population (1881) 6158, namely, Muhammadans, 3413, and Hindus, 2745. Area of town site, 8613 acres.

Bansi.—Village in Udaipur State, Rájputána. Chief place of an estate of the same name, and the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 56 villages.

Bánsi.—*Tahsil* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the river Rápti on the Nepál border. Area, 609 square miles, of which 426 are cultivated; population (1881) 338,839; land revenue, £24,376; total revenue, £24,989. The *tahsil* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 64 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 440.

Bánsi.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bánsi *tahsil*, situated on the right or south bank of the Rápti, 32 miles north-north-east of Bánsi town. Population under five thousand. The place is rather an overgrown village than a town,

consisting of a mass of mud huts, dotted here and there with a temple, a mosque, or the brick-built house of some grain merchant. The local Rájá resides at Narkatha, on the opposite side of the river. The Bánsí Rájás formerly resided in Bánsi itself, and the remains of their castle occupy a high site in the south-east corner of the town. In the midst of the ruins rises a great fig-tree (the supposed abode of a demon, the ghost of a Bráhman, who did a former Rájá to death, and drove the family from their ancestral residence) which is now an object of worship. Two weekly fairs are held. Several unmetalled roads from Nepál, Basti, Domariáganj, Bankala, and elsewhere, converge upon the town; and the Rápti is crossed by a ferry. During the last thirty years, the prosperity of Bánsi, which was formerly a considerable *entrepôt* for grain, has declined, although a fair local business is still carried on at the weekly markets. About a hundred yards north-east of the town stands the small and fort-like *tahsíli*. The other public buildings consist of a first-class police station, *munsif's* court, post-office, Government school, *sarái* or native inn, staging bungalow, and branch dispensary. The water supply of the town is very bad, and the inhabitants suffer much from goitre.

Bánskhálí.—Village in Chittagong District, Bengal, with small export trade in rice. Lat. 22° 50′ 15″ N., long. 91° 31′ E. The place gives its name to a police circle (*thánú*), and also to a small canal and an embankment.

Bánsloi.—Tributary of the Bhágírathí river, Bengal, rising in the Santál Parganás, and flowing a generally eastern course through Bírbhúm and Murshidábád Districts till it falls into the Bhágirathí opposite the large commercial town of Jangipur. Navigable during the rainy season by boats of 2 tons burden. As its name implies, it was largely utilised for floating down rafts of bamboos, till the neighbouring hills became almost denuded.

Bánsror.—Fort in Rájputána.—*See* BHAINSROR.

Bánsura.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, on the right bank of the Chauká river; 39 miles from Sítápur town. Population (1881) 2293. Government opium warehouse, school, tri-weekly market.

Bánswára (*Wasnwára*).—State in Rájputána, under the Mewár Political Agency, bounded on the north and north-west by Dungarpur and Meywár, on the north-east and east by Partábgarh, on the south by petty States of the Central India Agency, and on the west by the Rewá-Kántha States of the Bombay Presidency; between 23° 10′ and 23° 48′ N. lat., and between 74° 2′ and 74° 41′ E. long. Length from north to south, about 45 miles; and breadth from east to west, about 33 miles; area, about 1300 square miles. On the north and east the boundary is marked by the Máhi river. The western portion of the State is open and well cultivated, and its inhabitants are chiefly a settled population of

Bráhmans of the cultivating classes; the roads here are in fair order and practicable for carts during the greater part of the year. The remainder of the country is covered with rugged hills, rocks, scrub-jungle and woodland, and is inhabited by Bhíls. Water is tolerably plentiful throughout the State; in the Bhíl tracts there is often a scarcity in the summer, and during the rains travelling is difficult, unless an elephant is used. Of the geology of Bánswara scarcely anything is known, and its mineral productions are unimportant. The Máhi is the principal river of the State; its banks are between 40 and 50 feet high, and except in the rainy season it is always fordable. The average rainfall is 44·3 inches per annum, and the temperature in summer 92° to 100° F.; rains, 80° to 83°; winter, 65° to 70°. Fever is the most formidable and prevalent malady. The chiefs of Banswára belong to the Sesodia clan of Rájputs now ruling in Dungarpur, of which they are a junior branch. In the 16th century the whole country which now comprises the two States of Dungarpur and Bánswára was under the dominion of one family of Sesodias. On the death of one of the chiefs, Udai Singh, in 1528, the territory was divided between his two sons, and the descendants of the two families are the present chiefs of Dungarpur and Bánswára, the river Máhi being fixed as the boundary between the two States. Since that time they have remained distinct and independent of one another. Towards the end of the 18th century, Bánswára became more or less subjected to the Maráthás; it paid tribute to the Chief of Dhar in Central India. In 1812, the chief offered to become tributary to the British Government on the condition of the expulsion of the Maráthás; but no definite relations were formed with him till 1818, when a treaty was concluded, by which the chief bound himself to act in subordinate co-operation, and to settle his affairs in accordance with the advice of the British Government, to abstain from disputes and political correspondence with other chiefs, to pay a tribute (not exceeding three-eighths of his revenue), and to furnish troops when required. The tribute was fixed at £2625, but it has since been raised to £3800 to defray the cost of additional supervision required by the disorders of the native administration, and for works of utility to the State.

The chief holds the rank of Mahárávwal, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. He has received the right of adoption. The chief feudatory of the State is the Ráo of Kushálgarh, who holds a compact domain in the south of Bánswára; there are besides 13 *thákurs* of the first rank in the State, who pay a total tribute of £1612 to their chief. The revenue of Bánswára is about £28,000, of which 33 feudatories enjoy about £7333. The population has been returned (1881) at 152,045, of whom the Bhíls form more than one-third, while the inhabitants of the chief towns are mostly Hindus of the

trading classes, Musálmans and Rájputs. The system of administration is generally of a primitive sort. Education is at a low ebb, and there are no made roads in the State, nor traffic routes of any importance, most of the traffic from Ratlam and Málwá passing south through Kushalgárh. The chief keeps a military force of 3 guns with 20 gunners, 60 cavalry and 500 infantry. The State is divided into the following 8 Districts, viz. Ghanti-Utár, Loária, Chimda, Bhungra, Mahírawára, Panchalwára, Khánduwára, and Pathog. In this article the revenue, etc. has been calculated into British rupees from the local Salim Sháh currency, which is worth about one-third less than the standard rupee.

Bánswára.—Capital of the State of that name, in Rájputána. Lat. 23° 30′ N., long. 74° 24′ E. Population (1881) 7908. The chief's palace stands on rising ground to the south of the city, and is surrounded by a high loopholed wall with three gates. On the crest of the low ridge to the south of the capital stands a double-storied building called the Sháhí Belás, built by the present chief. To the east lies the Bái Tál, or 'Lady's Lake,' and in a garden about half a mile distant are the *chhatris* or mausoleums of the rulers of Bánswára. Some old ruins on the top of a hill two miles to the south of the city, are said to be the remains of the palace of the chief who founded it. The town has a wall round it, which, except on the south, is in a tolerable state of repair. Dispensary and post-office. A fair, lasting 15 days, and attended by about 2000 visitors, takes place in October.

Banthar.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 5 miles south of Unáo town, on the road from Purwa to Cawnpur. Population (1881) 2235, namely, Hindus, 2153, and Muhammadans, 82; 6 Hindu temples; vernacular school.

Banthly (*Wanthli*, *Vanathali*).—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 28′ 30″ N., long. 70° 22′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 6529.—*See* WANTHLI.

Bántwá.—Native State within the Sorath District of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay Presidency, lying between 21° 24′ and 21° 39′ N. lat., and between 70° 0′ 15″ and 70° 18′ 45″ E. long.; estimated area, 221 square miles; population (1881) 38,536; gross revenue, £45,000. The country is for the most part a plain of rich black soil, watered towards the south by the Bhádar and Ojhat rivers. The climate is on the whole good; the average rainfall is about 25 inches. The chief diseases are fever and dysentery. Besides the usual grains, much cotton is grown, and a considerable quantity of sugar-cane. There is a local manufacture of coarse cotton cloth.

The ruling family is Musalmán, descended from a younger son of the second Nawáb of Junágarh, to whom the Bántwá territory was made over in 1740. Engagements to keep order and remain at peace

were entered into with the British Government in 1807. The present chief, with the title of Bábi, resides at Mánáadar, and maintains a military force of 171 men. He has no *sanad* authorizing adoption, nor does the succession follow the rule of primogeniture. The chief pays to the British Government an annual tribute of £2964, inclusive of £1482 for Mánánadar. There are two other shareholders of this State, both holding the title of Bábi, one of whom resides at Gídar. The State is without made roads; the produce of the country finds its way outwards chiefly through the harbours of Veráwal, Mángrol, and Porbandar. There is 1 school, with 57 pupils. No transit dues are levied.

Bántwá.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in Káthiáwár, Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 29′ 15″ N., and long. 70° 7′ E.; population (1881) 7589, namely, 1558 Hindus, 6016 Muhammadans, and 15 Jains. The town is fortified.

Bántwál.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency, containing about 1000 houses, chiefly occupied by traders. Lat. 12° 53′ 20″ N., long. 75° 4′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 3090, namely, 2228 Hindus, 760 Muhammadans, 87 Christians, and 15 others. Situated on the river Netravati, 14 miles east of Mangalore. The river bed is here encumbered with masses of hornblende rock, containing mica and garnets, syenite and a beautiful pegmatite, with flesh-coloured crystals of felspar. Formerly a place of importance, and still, as an *entrepôt* for the produce of the District on its way to Mysore, possessing a considerable through traffic. During the war with Tipú Sultán the town was partially destroyed by the Rájá of Coorg, who also carried off half the inhabitants as prisoners. The former *táluk* of Bántwál extended over 1650 square miles, and was divided into 88 *máganis*, containing 394 villages and 8449 estates, paying a total revenue of £25,000 per annum. It was dismembered in 1852, and merged in the other *táluks* now existing.

Banúr.—Town in Pinjaur *tahsíl*, Patiálá State, Punjab. Population (1881) 6671, namely, Hindus, 3239; Sikhs, 957; Jains, 67; and Muhammadans, 2408. Number of occupied houses, 1478.

Baoli.—Town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 5990, namely, Hindus, 5321; Muhammadans, 443; and Jains, 226; area of town site, 49 acres.

Baoní.—State in Bundelkhand, enclosed on all sides by British territory, lying between 25° 53′ 15″ and 26° 7′ N. lat., and between 79° 42′ 30″ and 80° 30′ 25″ E. long.; length, north to south, about 15 miles; area, 127 square miles; population in 1881, 17,055; estimated revenue, £10,000. This is the only Muhammadan State in Bundelkhand. The Chief, Nawáb Ghází-ud-dín Khán, has a military force of 40 cavalry, 300 infantry, and 75 police, 3 guns, and 8 gunners. The grant of 52

villages was originally made about the middle of the last century to Gházi-ud-dín Khán, a connection of the Nizám's family, by the Peshwá. This grant was confirmed by the British Government in 1802; and the Muhammadan descendant of the original grantee still holds the *jágír*, and resides at Kodaner, his chief village.

Báori.—State in Central India.—*See* KALI BAORI.

Bápatlá.—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 80° 31′ E. Area, 679 square miles; land revenue, £59,040. Houses, 26,674; population (1881) 151,736, being 76,574 males and 75,162 females, distributed in 2 towns and 112 villages. Chief town, BAPATLA.

Bápatlá.—Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 54′ 30″ N., long. 80° 30′ 25″ E.; population (1881) 6086, namely, 5689 Hindus, 396 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian, occupying 1080 houses. Situated about 30 miles south of Gantur (Guntoor). Head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name, with a District *munsif's* court, post-office, and travellers' bungalow.

Bárá.—River in Pesháwar District, Punjab. It rises in a valley of the same name, lying in native territory on the southern side of the Khaibar Hills; receives its chief tributary, the Tíra Toi, 8 miles beyond the British border; runs north-east through the District, passing within 2 miles of Pesháwar, and falls into the Sháh Alam branch of the Kábul river shortly before its junction with the main stream. Near the fort of Bárá, the river is intercepted by three cuts, of which one conveys water to the town of Pesháwar, while the other supplies the water-courses of the Khalíls and Mohmands. The lower channel is consequently dry for the greater portion of the year; but heavy rains in the Tíra Hills render it impassable for days together. The roads to Kohát and Attock cross the Bárá, over good timber bridges. The stream gives its name to the celebrated Bárá rice, which grows along its banks. The Sikhs required the whole crop to be brought to Pesháwar, where the best portion was reserved for seed; the second best was sent to Ranjít Singh at Lahore, and the remainder was left to the *zamíndárs*. The Bárá is regarded as a sacred river, and the spot where its waters are first divided forms a special object of veneration. The Northern State Punjab Railway crosses the river by an iron bridge.

Bara.—Village in Unáo District, Oudh; 16 miles south of Purwa, and 24 east of Unáo town. Lat. 26° 21′ N., long. 80° 46′ E. Founded by an eponymous Rájá Bára of the Bhar tribe, about 2000 years ago. Population (1881) 1627, namely, Hindus, 1541, and Musalmáns, 86. Goldsmiths' and carpenters' work, indigo manufactory. Two Hindu temples; school; post-office, and police station.

Bara Banki.—District in Oudh, under the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 31′ 30″ and 27° 21′

15″ N. lat., and between 80° 58′ and 81° 54′ E. long.; area, 1768 square miles; population in 1881, 1,026,788 souls. The easternmost of the three Districts which make up the Lucknow Division. Bara Banki is bounded on the north and west by Sítápur and Lucknow, on the south by Rái Bareli and Sultánpur, on the east by Faizábád, and on the north-east by the broad streams of the Chauká and Gogra (Ghágra), which separate it from Bahraich and Gonda.

Physical Aspects.—Like the rest of the Oudh portion of the Ganges basin, Bara Banki consists of an almost level plain, falling gradually from north-west to south-east towards the Bay of Bengal, at a gentle gradient of 3 feet in the mile; with lateral inclinations at a gradient of 6 feet in the mile towards the beds of its main rivers, the Gogra and the Gúmti. The regularity of this gentle seaward slope suggests the belief that the plain was originally levelled by marine denudation; then slowly raised above the waters by the gradual silting up of the mouths of some ancient Himálayan river debouching upon it; next, covered with sand and soil washed down from the mountains; and fashioned at last to its present configuration by the scour of a tropical rainfall. The floods of ages, fed by mountain glaciers, and pouring over this slanting plain, have cut through it two great channels to the sea, the valleys of the Ganges and the Gogra. Along the right bank of the latter river, Bara Banki District stretches for 48 miles, and spreads inland for about 30 miles, over the water-parting which divides the immediate basin of the Gogra from that of its affluent the Gúmti; it then slopes down the watershed and into the Gúmti valley. Crossing the District from stream to stream, each of its leading features presents itself in turn. Leaving behind the broad Gogra, known here as the Chauká, until at Bahramghát it meets the Sarju, a strip of loose, white river sand is crossed, hot and glaring even under a morning sun; then a tangle of tamarisk and tall *sarpat* grass (Saccharum moonja), the haunt of wild boar, deer, and *nílgai;* and farther on, a cool green champaign, dotted with groups of grazing cattle, and chequered with patches of rice and clumps of stunted acacia (*bábul*). Thence out of the flat alluvial valley of the Gogra, the road leads for some 25 feet up a broken sandy ridge, the western edge of the valley, over an uneven undulating region, poorly cultivated and timbered, to a broad sheet of level cultivation, brisk with crowded villages, and set so thick with groves of mango that everywhere they meet the sky, and form a near background to a landscape full of quiet charm.

In the heart of this tract lies a chain of small shallow lakes (*talábs*) and marshes (*jhils*), which fill a series of slight depressions in the level plain, and testify to its alluvial origin. Unconnected in dry weather, in the rains they fill and spread and link together in a long line, stretching for many miles parallel to the course of the river.

Still bearing westwards, we come to a narrow stream creeping between steep banks fringed with brushwood and broken by ravines. This is the Kalyáni, an affluent of the Gúmti, and the main channel by which the chain of *jhils* is drained. In the great flood of 1871, a torrent 90 yards broad and 5 fathoms deep, discharging more than 50,000 cubic feet a second, poured along it. Between the Kalyáni and the Gúmti lies the richest section of the District. The general aspect is not unlike that of the plain already described, but the crops are better watered and heavier, the patches of waste land fewer, the groves and villages somewhat more frequent. The Gúmti is a winding river, 40 yards broad, fordable, flowing with many sudden twists and gentle curves along a deep channel 50 feet below the crest of the bank from which you look down upon it. Innumerable ravines cut up the country along its course, and penetrate deep into the inland plateau.

History.—The early annals of Bara Banki have been little studied. Its legends have still to be gathered, its ancient places are not yet explored. Memories of pre-historic times still linger here and there. In June, on the 'Day of Snakes,' worshippers assemble at Majitha near Nawábganj, at Purái near Siddhaur, and at the Dighi Tank at Aliábád, to offer milk and rice at these legendary haunts of the kindly serpent-kings (Nágas). Physical blessings, such as the cure of goitred throats, are believed to be in their gift. A historical significance underlies this survival of a primitive aboriginal religion—the worship of the serpent in the Æsculapian character, recalling a long distant past, when the now mythical Nágas were a ruling and civilised race. At Aliábád and Siddhaur, high mounds of curious shape, fragments of stone temples, and bricks of unusual size, belong perhaps to the period when the Buddhist King Asoka (250 B.C.) erected *stupas* at such places as the serpent-tank (Nága-hrada) of Ahichhatra, 'near which Buddha had preached the law for seven days in favour of the serpent-king' (General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, i. p. 361). The period of Buddhist ascendancy seems to have been synchronous with the sway of a once powerful but now degraded tribe, the Bhars. Here, and in the neighbouring Districts of southern and eastern Oudh, the land is thickly strewn with relics of their wealth and power, in the shape of tanks and wells and embankments, and the deserted sites (*dihs*) of brick-built forts and towns. In western Oudh, Thatheras, Jhojhas, Arakhs, and Rájpásias occupy the corresponding page in local history.

The revival of Bráhmanism was apparently accompanied by the forcible displacement of these low-caste Buddhist tribes by Kshattriya warriors. A murderous struggle was still going on when the Muhammadan invasions took place. The exhaustion of Bhars and Kshattriyas alike, and the difficulty of rallying both against the common foe, contributed to the invader's success. An outline of the Muhammadan conquest of

Bara Banki indicates the extent to which the Kshattriyas had displaced the Bhars in the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries. In 1030 A.D. the first Muhammadan invader of Oudh, Sayyid Sálár Masáud, fought his way past Múltán, Delhi, Meerut (Mirath), and Kanauj, to Satrikh in Bara Banki, then a city of importance and a frequented shrine. From Satrikh, Kintur, Narindgarh, now called Thahimábád, and Subeha, he drove out the Bhars, while at Sihali he defeated the Siharias, and at Dewa the Janwár Kshattriyas. The first permanent Muhammadan settlement in Oudh seems to have been made at Satrikh. In 1189 A.D., the Siharias were finally conquered by Ausári Shaikhs; in 1238 Sayyid Abdul Wáhid seized Johelpur from the Bhars, and named it Zaidpur. About the same time, the Sayyids of Kheoli, near Dewa, won the domain now held by them from the Bhars of Bhitauli; while Bháti Muhammadans, from Bhatnair, wrested Barauli from the Bais Kshattriyas, and Mawái-Maholára from the Bhars; Rudauli was conquered from the Bhars in 1300, and Rasúlpur in 1355. To the 15th century, when Oudh was the battle-field between the Sharki dynasty of Jaunpur and the Lodhi kings of Delhi, is assigned the military colonization of Dariábád by Dáriáo Khán, Subahdár of Fatehpur by his brother Fateh Khán, and of Kamiár and the Kalhans country on both sides of the Gogra (Ghágra) by Achal Singh, one of his lieutenants, an adventurer from Guzerat, of foreign, some say English, extraction. At the present day, the lords of 6 great *táluks*, and 20,000 Kalhans clansmen look back to Achal Singh with pride as the founder of their family and fortunes. In the same disturbed period, Haráha was garrisoned with Surajbansi, and Surajpur with Sombansí Kshattriyas. It is uncertain whether the great colony of Raikwár Kshattriyas in Rámnagar dates from this or from an older time.

The annalist of Bahraich fixes 1414 A.D. (though Sítápur tradition places it 200 years earlier) as the date when Saldeo and Baldeo—Surajbansi emigrants from Kashmír, taking a tribal name from their native village, Raika—sought service with the Bhar Rájás of Rámnagar in Bara Banki, and of Bamnauti, now Baundi, across the Gogra in Bahraich. Each in time supplanted his master, and ruled in his stead. So founded, the Raikwár colony grew, and spread for 60 miles along either bank of the river. In the reign of Akbar, gallant service in Kashmír earned for the Raikwár chieftain, Harhardeo, the grant of *parganá* Saílak (now Rámnagar and Muhammadpur) in Bara Banki, and of eight other *parganás*, whole or part, in Bahraich, Sítápur, and Kheri. In 1751 the recent successful raid of the Rohillás, and the absence of the imperial troops in Rohilkhand, tempted the Raikwárs to head a great rising of Hindus against the Muhammadan Government. Prominent among their fellow-rebels were the Bisens of Gonda and the Janwár Kshattriyas of Balrámpur. Marching upon Lucknow, they were met at Chulaha Ghát, on the Kalyáni, by the

Shaikhzádás of Lucknow, and the Khanzádás of Mahmúdábád and Biláhra. After a fierce conflict, in which 15,000 men were killed and wounded on both sides, the Muhammadans won the day. The Khanzádás rose into power, the Raikwárs for a time lost it; the *táluks* of Baundi and Rámnagar were broken up, and the Raikwár Rájá retained only a few of his villages. In the evil times which set in on the death of Saádat Ali Khán in 1814, the Raikwárs recovered their lost estates; and before the annexation in 1856 they had become masters of a larger domain than had been theirs in 1751. Under the Native Government, Daryábád District, as it was then called, bore an evil reputation for turbulence and disorder. In jungles and ravines along the Gúmti and Kalyáni lay the strongholds of many bandits, such as the Barelia Bais Rájá Singhjí of Surajpur, Mahipat Singh of Bhawánígarh, and Gangá Baksh of Kásúnganj, whose crimes are recorded in Sir W. Sleeman's *Diary*.

In 1856, the District, with the rest of Oudh, came under British rule. During the Sepoy war of 1857–58, the whole of the Bara Banki *tálukdárs* joined the mutineers, but offered no serious resistance after the capture of Lucknow. At the battle of Nawábganj (June 1858) the Raikwár *zamíndárs* of Sítápur and Bahraich fought and fell with all the historic heroism of Rájputs. The Queen of Oudh, driven from Lucknow, had fled for refuge to their fort at Baundi, and these chivalrous chiefs were devoted to her cause. 'I have seen,' wrote the British general, 'many battles in India, and many brave fellows fighting with a determination to conquer or die, but I never witnessed anything more magnificent than the conduct of these *zamíndárs*.' Order was re-established in July 1858. In 1859 the head-quarters were removed from Daryábád, where stagnant pools produced malarious fever, to Nawábganj. The District consisted at this time of 13 *parganás* grouped into the 3 Sub-divisions (*tahsíls*) of Nawábganj, Daryábád-Rudaulí, and Rámnagar. In 1869–70, 5 new *parganás* were added, viz. Bhitauli from Bahraich, Dewa and Kursi from Lucknow, Subeha from Sultánpur, and Haidargarh from Rái Bareli. *Parganá* Siddhaur was divided into Siddhaur North and South; and the 19 *parganás* thus made up were arranged in the 4 Sub-divisions of BARA BANKI, FATEHPUR RAMSANEHI, and HAIDARGARH.

Population.—The Census of 1869 returned the population of the District, according to its present area, at 1,113,430 souls. The next Census, in 1881, showed a population of 1,026,788, or a decrease of 86,642 on the enumeration of 1869. The male population in 1881 numbered 523,581, and the female 503,207. Area of District, 1768 square miles; average density of population, 580·7 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 2061; villages per square mile, 1·16; number of occupied houses, 187,557, with an average of 5·4 inmates

in each; number of houses per square mile, 106. Classified according to religion, the population is returned as follows:—Hindus, 855,164; Muhammadans, 170,556; Sikhs, 28; Christians, 78; Jains, 962. Among high-caste Hindus, Bráhmans were returned at 86,219, Rájputs at 40,443, and Káyasths at 13,384. The Baniyás or trading caste numbered 15,015. Of other castes the principal are the Kúrmís (the most numerous caste in the District), 147,540; Ahírs, 121,068; Pásís, 98,770; Chamárs, 64,598; Lodhís, 30,890; Korís, 25,683; Kachhís, 22,243; Kahárs, 20,944; Gadáriás, 17,849; Bhurjís, 15,904; Nais, 13,262; Loniás, 13,041; Dhobís, 12,521; and Telis, 10,229. Of the Muhammadans, 165,276 are returned as belonging to the Sunní, and 5280 to the Shiá sect. Of the Christians, 20 are returned as Europeans, 40 as Eurasians, and 18 as Natives. More than nine-tenths (94·8 per cent.) of the population is rural. Only 6 towns have more than 5000 inhabitants. These are NAWABGANJ (13,933), RUDAULI (11,394), ZAIDPUR (9181), FATEHPUR (7754), RAMNAGAR (5376), and DARYABAD (5538). Of the 2061 villages and towns, 612 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 781 from 200 to 500; 475 from 500 to 1000; 149 from 1000 to 2000; 24 from 2000 to 3000; 14 from 3000 to 5000; 4 from 5000 to 10,000; and 2 from 10,000 to 15,000. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six groups:—(1) Professional, including civil and military officers, all Government officials, and the learned professions, 8685; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 2512; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6582; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 258,428; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, 52,481; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 15,577 general labourers, 39 persons of rank and property not returned under any occupation, and 179,277 unspecified, principally male children), 194,893.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1768 square miles in 1881, 1123 are returned as under cultivation, 343 as cultivable, and 302 as uncultivable waste. The staple crops are wheat and rice, which occupy nearly half the cultivated area. The area under the different crops in 1880–81 is thus returned:—Rice, 132,820 acres; wheat, 190,613; other food grains, 373,601; oil-seeds, 2134; sugar-cane, 12,507; opium, 9857; indigo, 26; fibres, 54; tobacco, 983; vegetables, 4480. Poppy cultivation has been greatly stimulated of late years, the area under that crop having risen from 2681 acres in 1868, to 9857 acres in 1881. The out-turn of opium in 1882 was 2098 *maunds*, or 1536 cwts.; the price paid for it by Government to the producer, namely, 10s. the *ser*, amounting to £28,000. The crops commonly irrigated are wheat, sugar-cane, peas, lentils, and melons. Cane and melons receive seven or eight waterings.

The rivers in the dry season flow too far below the level of the country on their banks to be of much use for irrigation, but ponds and small shallow lakes (*jhils*) are numerous (covering 7 per cent. of the total area), and yield a precarious water-supply. Irrigation from them is costly work. The water is swung up in buckets over successive 'lifts,' until the fields are reached. Two pairs of labourers work at each lift, relieving each other hour by hour; another pair guides the slender stream over the thirsty fields. It takes 18 men to work a four-lift watercourse; and as in most seasons two waterings are absolutely necessary, it has been calculated that to irrigate by this method costs 8s. 4d. an acre. Irrigation from wells is widely practised, and is preferred for the crops. Water is generally found at about 30 feet below the surface, and unbricked (*kachhá*) wells, watering from 5 to 10 acres, can be dug for from 6s. to 12s. They seldom, however, last longer than a year, unless lined with the twisted stems of the malabar nut (*rusa*). A leather bag, worked by two men and a pair of bullocks, is used for drawing the water. To dig a new *kachhá* well, and to give the required couple of waterings, costs, on an average, 6s. 8d. an acre. In the north-eastern part of the District, between the Kalyáni and Gogra, the sandiness of the subsoil makes irrigation far more difficult. Only very small wells can here be dug; every day or two sand falling from the sides chokes the spring, and has to be cleared out. Nothing larger than an earthen pitcher, worked by hand over a pulley or by a lever, can here be used.

The average rates of rent per acre in 1881 for land growing the different crops, is returned as follows:—Rice, 17s. 6d.; wheat, 20s. 9d.; inferior grains, 11s. 3d; indigo, 34s.; cotton, 8s.; opium, 40s.; oil-seeds, 13s. 4d.; fibres, 14s.; sugar-cane, 28s. 6d.; tobacco, 37s. 9d. These are the rates officially returned in the Revenue Administration Report for Oudh in 1880-81, but they seem excessive when compared with those returned for neighbouring Districts, and are in fact much higher than those given for any other District in the Province. As stated below, it will be seen that the average rent for all varieties of land is just under 9s. an acre, according to the Census of 1881. Average produce of land per acre:—Rice, 343 lbs.; wheat, 503 lbs.; inferior grains, 551 lbs.; indigo, 106 lbs.; cotton, 144 lbs.; opium, 313 lbs.; oil-seeds, 242 lbs.; fibres, 202 lbs.; sugar, 2656 lbs.; tobacco, 632 lbs. Prices of food grains and agricultural produce per cwt. in September 1881:—Rice, 1st quality, 11s. 7d. per cwt.; 2nd quality, 6s. 7d.: wheat, 1st quality, 5s. 5d.; 2nd quality, 5s. 1d.; gram, 1st quality, 4s. 9d.; 2nd quality, 4s. 7d.: sugar (refined), 40s. 9d.; sugar (raw), 9s. The estimated agricultural stock in the District in 1881 was returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 175,817; horses, 468; ponies, 3523; donkeys, 3975; sheep and goats, 58,445; pigs, 39,289; carts, 1980; ploughs, 111,147.

the unpaid services of 4 honorary magistrates, selected from among the native gentlemen of the District.

For police purposes the District is divided into 9 circles (*thánás*). In 1880, the regular police force numbered 453 of all ranks, and cost £6113. A municipal or town force, of 68 officers and men, was also kept up at a cost of £438. A rural police of 3522 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*) was maintained by the landowners at a cost of £7131. Total police force, 4043 officers and men, or 1 man to every ·44 square mile of area and to every 254 persons of population; total cost, £13,682, or an average of £7, 14s. 8d. per square mile, and 3½d. per head. During the six years ending 1872, the average number of convictions for rioting, theft, robbery, coining, culpable homicide, and murder, was 627. In 1880, the number of convictions was 670, out of a total of 3417 'cognisable' cases investigated by the police. Five-sixths of the convictions were for theft. The Raikwárs of Rámnagar still practise female infanticide. A special Census undertaken in 53 of their villages in 1871 showed that, out of every 5 girls born, 2 had probably been made away with. Education in 1880-81 was afforded by 145 schools, either supported or aided by Government, and attended by 5126 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected and unaided schools. The Census Report returned a total of 5677 boys and 54 girls under instruction in 1881; besides 22,666 males and 288 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

The District is divided into 19 *parganás* or clusters of villages, grouped under 4 Sub-divisions (*tahsíls*).

Medical Aspects.—The year divides into three seasons—the hot weather from the end of March to the middle of June, then the rains till the end of September or beginning of October, and the cold weather till March comes round again. The average rainfall for the 15 years ending 1881 was 37·58 inches; varying from 21 inches in 1868 to 64 inches in 1871. In 1881, the rainfall amounted to 31·58 inches, being 6·08 inches below the average. The prevailing diseases are epidemic cholera, small-pox, and malarial fevers, of a mild, intermittent, quotidian type. Cases of tertian and remittent fevers are rare. A few sporadic cases of cattle-disease occurred in 1871 and 1872, but there has been no serious outbreak. [For further information regarding Bara Banki, see the Settlement Report of the District, 1879, by Lieutenant-Colonel F. E. A. Chamier; the *Oudh Gazetteer*, by Mr. C. M'Minn, C.S. (Lucknow Press); the *North-Western Provinces and Oudh Census Report* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* for 1880 to 1882.]

Bara Banki (or *Nawábganj*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Fatehpur, on the east by Rám Sanehi, on the south by Haidargarh and by Mohanlálganj in

Lucknow, and on the west by Lucknow and Malihábád in Lucknow District. Area, 357 square miles, of which 229 are cultivated. Population (1881) 212,068, namely, Hindus, 166,588; Muhammadans, 45,031; 'others,' 449; number of villages or towns, 392. The *tahsíl* consists of the five *parganás* of Nawábganj, Dewa, Satrikh, Siddhaur North, and Partábganj. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, 2 Honorary Assistant Commissioners, 3 extra-Assistant Commisioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, and 1 *munsif*. These officers preside over 1 civil and 8 criminal courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 41 men, besides a body of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Bara Banki.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh, about 1 mile north of Nawábganj, the two places together forming the administrative head-quarters of the District. Lat. 26° 56′ 10″ N., long. 81° 13′ 10″ E. Before the Muhammadan conquest the place was known as Jasnául, having been founded by a Bhar Rájá named Jas, some 900 years ago. After the Musalmán invasion of Kanauj, the new owners are said to have divided the place into 12 shares, over which they quarrelled so incessantly that they were called the Bará Bankas, or 12 quarrelsome men, whence the present name of the town. Others derive the name from *bán*, meaning jungle, and interpret Bará Banki as the 12 shares of jungle. The lands belonging to the town are much sub-divided, and the inhabitants are chiefly small Musalmán proprietors and their dependants. Population (1881) 13,933, namely, Hindus, 8640; Muhammadans, 4933; Jains, 344; and Christians, 16. Municipal income in 1880–81, £1041, of which £890 was derived from octroi duties; expenditure, £1014. The civil station is at NAWABGANJ, and further particulars will be found in the article under that head.

Barábár.—Hills in Gayá District, Bengal; a range of great interest to the archæologist, as it contains many remarkable antiquarian remains; lying between 25° 1′ and 25° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 3′ 30″ and 85° 7′ E. long.; between 6 and 8 miles east of the Belá Station on the Patná and Gayá State Railway. On the highest peak (Barábár) is an ancient temple sacred to Sidheswára, containing a *linga*, said to have been placed there by Bárá Rájá, the Asur king of Dinájpur, whose bloody wars with Krishna still live in the remembrance of the people. A large fair, attended only by men, is held here in September. The pilgrims begin to arrive at daybreak, and spend the day on the hill; the night is devoted to the worship of the image, and in the morning the crowd begins to melt away. An extempore *bázár* is established for the day, at which sweetmeats and other offerings for the god are sold. The number who attended the *melá* in 1873 was roughly estimated at between 10,000 and 20,000 men. To the south, and near the base of this hill, the path up which is freely adorned with images of all kinds,

lies a small recess, enclosed on two sides by the mountain, on a third by an artificial barrier of stone, and on the fourth by a long low ridge of granite. Here, in the solid rock, have been cut the remarkable caves which give the name of *Sátghar* (literally '*Seven Houses*') to the glen. The four caves found in this part of the mountain average 32 feet by 14 feet; three of them are chiselled to a wonderful polish, the fourth being still unfinished. Pálí inscriptions show that the oldest was cut in 252 B.C., and the latest in 214 B.C. The remaining three caves are on another spur of the hill, called Nagarjuní. Not far off is the sacred spring of Patalgangá, and at the base of the rugged peak of Kanwádol ('*Crow's Rocking-stone*') is an enormous figure of Buddha. Many other figures and sculptures are found among these hills. They have been fully described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton and General Cunningham. In the *Bengal Atlas* of Major Rennel, this cluster is called the Currumshaw Hills. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton points out that this name is a corruption of *Karná Champar*, or 'Karná's Seat,' the name of an ancient ruin on the hills.

Barábáti Fort.—The citadel of Cuttack town, in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated on the south bank of the Mahánadí river opposite Cuttack. Lat. 20° 29′ N., long. 85° 56′ E. It is not known at what time it was built, but it probably dates not later than the 14th century. The original building is said to have been of Hindu origin, but the Muhammadan or Maráthá governors of Orissa, in 1750, added a round bastion, and constructed an arched gateway in the eastern face of the fort. This gateway, and a mosque called after Fateh Khán Rahim, are almost the only portions of the citadel which remain intact, much of the stone in the fort having been used by the officers of the Public Works Department for Government buildings. An unsightly series of earthen mounds, and a wilderness of stone pits, now mark the place where the fortress stood. It had double walls, built of stone, the inner of which enclosed a rectangular area measuring 2150 by 1800 feet. The eastern gateway was flanked by two lofty square towers, and from the centre of the fort rose a huge square bastion supporting a flagstaff. Altogether the appearance of the edifice was very imposing, and presented to the imagination of M. la Motte, who travelled through Orissa in 1767, some resemblance to Windsor Castle. The fort was captured by the English in 1803, in their campaign against the Maráthás.

Baráchati.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) on the Grand Trunk Road, 20 miles south of Gayá, in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 30′ 10″ N., long. 85° 3′ 10″ E. Has a local police of 18 men. There used to be good shooting of all kinds near here, and tigers are still met with in the neighbourhood. There is a *dák* bungalow.

Bará Dehi.—The highest of the four chief peaks of the Assiá range

of hills in Cuttack District, Bengal. At the foot of the mountain is the ruined seat of the old Hindu hill chieftain.

Barágái (or *Marang Buru*).—A hill in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Height above the sea, 3445 feet; above the Chutiá Nágpur plateau, 1300 feet; and above the Dámodar valley, 2400 feet. Lat. 23° 32′ 45″ N., long. 85° 29′ 45″ E. There is a good deal of *júm* cultivation on the upper slopes of the hill.

Barágáon (or *Chit-Firozpur*).—Town in Ballia District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the banks of the Little Sarju river, 10 miles west of Ballia town on the Gházípur Road; lat. 25° 45′ 4″ N., long. 84° 2′ 39″ E. Population (1881) 10,847, namely, Hindus, 9892, and Muhammadans, 955; area of town site, 92 acres. An important agricultural centre.

Barágáon.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; 17 miles north-west from Sítápur town. Population (1881) 2081. Bi-weekly market, at which cotton, salt, and iron from the North-Western Provinces are sold, and also cloth and sugar of local manufacture. Annual value of sales estimated at £5785. Government school.

Barágárí.—Town in Rangpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5668, namely, Hindus, 4571, and Muhammadans, 1097; area, 2655 acres.

Bara Haldibari.—Town in Kuch Behar State, Bengal. Population (1881) 5230, namely, males 2761, and females 2469.

Barah.—*Tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, in a rugged country south of the Jumna (Jamuná), stretching upward to the Káimur Hills. Area, 252·2 square miles, of which 121·5 are cultivated; population (1881) 53,430; land revenue, £13,058; total revenue, £14,664; rental paid by cultivators, £20,032. The *tahsíl* contains one criminal court, with two police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 25 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 132.

Barah.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Barah *tahsíl*, distant about 5 miles from the Jasra station on the Jabalpur branch line of the East Indian Railway. An inconsiderable village, with a population in 1881 of 1965. It derives its sole importance from being the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*. It also contains a second-class police station, school, and post-office.

Barah.—Rural town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, lies on the alluvial plain of the Ganges. Lat. 25° 30′ 30″ N., long. 83° 54′ 15″ E.; area, 139 acres; population (1872) 5424. In 1881, the population had decreased to below 5000, and the town is not returned separately in the Census Report.

Barahtiya.—Town in Chittagong Sub-division, Chittagong District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5043, namely, 2242 males and 2801 females.

Barail (*Barel*).—Hill range on north boundary of Cachar District, Assam.—*See* BAREL.

Bárak (or *Surmá*).—River of North-Eastern India, which waters the southern valley of the Province of Assam, comprising the Districts of Cachar and Sylhet. Its source lies among the Cachar mountains occupied by the wild tribe of Angámí Nágás in the neighbourhood of Kohíma. For about 180 miles it flows in a narrow valley, shut in between steep hills, in a south-south-west direction, until it touches British territory at the village of Tipái-mukh. Here it is joined by the Tipái river from the south, and abruptly turns due north, forming for some distance the boundary between Cachar District and Manipur. On entering Cachar a little above Bánskándi, it becomes navigable throughout the year by native boats. For four months of the year, from June to September, it is navigable beyond Lakhipur by steamers. From Lakhipur its course lies almost due west through the two Districts of Cachar and Sylhet, but it describes many windings and large loops, some of which have been cut across and converted into marshes by recent floods. At the boundary between Cachar and Sylhet, near the village of Bángá, it bifurcates into two branches, the larger and more northerly of which takes the name of the Surmá, the smaller and southerly branch being called the Kusiyára. After meandering with many sinuosities across Sylhet, both these branches ultimately fall into the Meghná on the border of Maimansingh District. The Bárak receives many tributaries on either bank, from North Cachar and the Khási and Jaintiá Hills on the north, and from the Lushái country and Hill Tipperah on the south. The chief of these, proceeding downwards, are the Jiri, Chiri, Madhura, Játinga, Lubah, Chengar Khál, and Páinda on the right bank; and the Sonai, Kátákhál, Langai, Manu, and Khoár, on the left. These, with the exception of the Madhura, are navigable even in the cold season by small country boats.

The Bárak itself is a river of the first importance for navigation. Within British territory, its bed averages from 100 to 200 yards in width, and its minimum depth is $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet. As is the case with all great rivers flowing through low-lying alluvial country, its banks have been raised by successive deposits of silt to a higher level than that of the surrounding plain. Consequently, when the Bárak itself and its tributary streams come down in flood, and the depth of water in its bed suddenly rises to as much as 40 feet, the inundation spreads far and wide over the plain. The fields annually fertilized in this manner do not need any artificial irrigation; and it is thought that the natural line of drainage would only be hindered by the construction of embankments. The Bárak forms the single means of communication between the Districts of Sylhet and Cachar and the outer world. Two

lines of steamers, namely those of the Eastern Bengal Railway Company and the India General Steam Navigation Company, ply on the Bárak. The steamers stop anywhere for cargo, but have store-houses at Silchar, Sialtek, Sylhet town and Chhatak, on the Surmá branch of the river; and at Kochuamak, Fenchuganj, and Bálaganj on the Kusiyára branch. The main river and its tributaries are crowded with country boats, which require to be towed up against the stream.

The chief obstacles to navigation in the upper parts of the river are snags in the river bed. In the cold or dry season, a bank of hardened mud forms a rapid, called the Kauriya *bánk*, some miles above Chhatak, which effectually bars the passage up the northerly branch to all except very small country boats. Similarly, on the southern branch, a ledge of rocks at Fenchuganj impedes steam navigation. There are other obstacles—rocks, shallows, and mud—on both branches of the river, above Chhatak and Fenchuganj. Except, however, when the water is at its lowest in February, a boat of 20 tons burthen can proceed up the Kusiyára branch as far as the point where the main stream bifurcates. In 1876–77, the river trade of Cachar and Sylhet Districts, as registered at Bhairab Bázár on the Meghná, showed a total of exports valued at £1,109,574, against imports valued at £532,212. By 1880–81, the value of the export trade had increased to £1,287,429, and the imports to £890,967. The most important item on the export side is tea, which amounted to 5,369,200 lbs. in 1876–77, as against 13,426,880 lbs. in 1880–81. There is a Government toll station at Siáltekh in Cachar District, where timber, bamboos, etc., pay toll to the amount of about £1800 a year.

Barákhar.—River in Bengal. Rises on the north face of the central plateau of Chutiá Nágpur; flows in a northerly direction as far as the Grand Trunk Road, after crossing which it turns east and then south-east, until it leaves Hazáribágh District and enters Mánbhúm. About 32 miles from the point where it leaves Hazáribágh it joins the Dámodar, on the boundary of Bardwán and Mánbhúm Districts, close to the village of Sankhtoria. In its course through Mánbhúm District, it recrosses the Grand Trunk Road about 3 miles above the point of junction with the Dámodar. Though everywhere fordable during the dry season, it is remarkable for the suddenness with which it rises during the rains, as well as for the strength of its current; and the construction of a bridge across it presents difficulties much more serious than could be inferred from its size. Boat traffic is impossible. Principal tributary, the Khudiá in Mánbhúm.

Barákhati.—Town or collection of villages in Rangpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 11,393, namely, Hindus, 3520, and Muhammadans, 7873. Area, 11,179 acres.

Barákilá and Tálibunda.—The highest peaks of the range on

which the citadel of Adoni stands, in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Height, 800 feet above the plain. Half-way up is a fine tank which is never dry, and on the summit grows a fig-tree forming a landmark for 20 or 30 miles in every direction.

Barákudu.—A division (*muttá*) of the Godairi *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. The Godairi estate, containing 150 villages, is among those proscribed by the Meriáh Agency, as addicted to human sacrifice.—*See* GODAIRI.

Barákuliá Khál.—River in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, forming part of the Outer Sundarbans Passage, one of the chief boat routes by means of which traffic is carried on between Calcutta and the Eastern Districts. An artificial watercourse, the Sáhib Kháli, connects the Barákuliá with the Kálindí river.

Baral.—River in Bengal, an important offshoot of the Ganges in Rájsháhí District. It leaves the parent stream near Charghát police station, and flows eastwards through the southern portion of the District, until it passes into Pabná. It was formerly navigable throughout the year, but during the present century a sandbank has formed across its mouth, obstructing the free passage of water from the Ganges for six or seven months of every year. The Baral throws out two offshoots to the north, the Musá Khán and the Nandákujá, the latter a river of some magnitude, which joins the Atrai a short distance to the north of the Chalan *bíl*.

Bára Láchá.—Mountain pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Western Himálayas, from Dáreha in Láhúl to the Rúpshú country in Ladákh. Lat. 32° 49′ N., long. 77° 28′ E.; elevation above the sea, 16,500 feet. Can be crossed by laden yaks and ponies. An excellent cart road might be constructed without difficulty.

Bar-Ali.—Old raised road or *ali* in Sibságar District, Assam Province, running from Názira to Dikhu-mukh. Length, 22 miles; annual cost of maintenance, £204. Much of the original embankment, constructed by forced labour under the Aham dynasty, has been cut away by floods of the Brahmaputra.

Bárámahal (‘*The Twelve Estates*’).—A former Division, including parts or all of the Tripatúr, Kistnagiri, Dharampur, Uttankarai, Osúr, and Denkamkotai *táluks* of the present Salem and North Arcot Districts, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 5′ to 12° 45′ N., long. 78° 10′ to 79° 30′ E. Twelve forts—Krishnagiri, Jaya Rangarh, Varangarh, Kávalgarh, Máharájgarh, Bújangarh, Gajangarh, Kattíragarh, Tripatúr. Vániambádi, Sathárasangarh, and Thatukallu—protected the tract, and on either side of it ran the Gháts. Originally part of the Vijayanagar domains, and governed by the Anagúndi branch of that family, it passed in 1668 under Mysore rule. Early in the next century the Pathán Nawábs of Karpa possessed themselves of the Bárámahal, but, after a

tenure of some fifty years, were ousted by Haidar Ali in 1759. The following year saw the Maráthás masters of the country, but after their defeat at Pánipat, Haidar re-entered on possession. In 1767, an English force invested Krishnagiri, but was driven back after a gallant struggle by the troops of Haidar and the Nizám. Reinforcements met the retiring force in the Chengamma Pass; and a few months later the English troops, attacking at two points, invaded the Bárámahal and occupied several of its forts. Twice again, in 1790 and 1791, armies were despatched to reduce the tract, but one fortress, that of Krishnagiri, withstood all assaults. In 1792 the Bárámahal was ceded to the English, and the name, under the new territorial division, was soon abandoned.

Bárámati.—Town in Poona (Puná) District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 8′ 30″ N., long. 74° 36′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 5272, namely, Hindus, 4641; Muhammadans, 499; and Jains, 132; area of town site, 107 acres; municipal revenue (1881–82) £600; rate of taxation, 2s. 2d. per head; municipal expenditure (1880–81) £480.

Barambá.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between 20° 22′ 15″ and 20° 31′ 40″ N. lat., and between 85° 15′ and 85° 31′ 30″ E. long.; area, 137 square miles. Population (1881) 29,772. It is entirely surrounded by other Tributary States, being bounded on the north by Hindol, on the east by Tigariá, on the south by Bánkí and Khandpárá (the boundary-line being formed by the Mahánadí river), and on the west by Narsinghpur. Kanaká Peak (2038 feet), the highest point of the hill range of the same name, is situated on the northern border of the State.

A legend attributes the foundation of the State to a celebrated wrestler, to whom the Orissa monarch presented two villages. These villages were owned and inhabited by Kandhs, but the wrestler speedily drove out the aborigines, and gradually extended his territory at their expense. The present ruler, Rájá Bisambhar Bírbar Mangráj Mahápatra, now (1883) a minor, 2 years of age, claims to be a Kshattriya by caste, and is the 21st Rájá in descent from the original chief. The State yields an estimated revenue of £2600, and pays £140 tribute to the British Government. The chief maintains a military force of 709 men, and his police are 188 strong. He also supports a school, and post-office. The State is now, and will remain during the minority of the Chief, under the direct management of Government.

The population of Barambá, numbering, as has been said, 29,772 persons, inhabit 186 villages and 5662 houses. The number of Hindus is 26,069; Buddhists, 492; aboriginal tribes, chiefly Kandhs and Savars, 3093; and Muhammadans, 118. Number of males, 15,004, and females, 14,768. Average density of the population, 222 per square mile; villages per square mile, 139; persons per village, 160; houses per

square mile, 79; persons per house, 5·4. The principal village and the residence of the Rájá is Barambá, in the centre of the State (lat. 20° 25′ 15″ N., long. 82° 22′ 41″ E.). The only other villages in the State worthy of notice are Gopináthpur, Maniabandh, and Banamalipur—all on the Mahánadí. At the two last-named villages trading fairs are held twice a week. The Mahánadí affords excellent water-carriage, and logs of timber and bamboos are floated down the river to Cuttack and Purí Districts.

Baramula.—Mountain gorge in Kashmír State, Punjab, through which the Jhelum (Jehlam) river passes. Lat. 34° 10′ N., long. 74° 30′ E. The town of Baramula stands on the right bank of the river, here spanned by a bridge of eight piers.

Baran. — *Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; known also as Bulandshahr *tahsíl.* Lies in the centre of the Doáb plain; intersected throughout by the Káli Nadí, and in two places by branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 478 square miles, of which 346 are cultivated. Population (1881) 262,901; land revenue at time of settlement, £35,346; total revenue, £39,033; rental paid by cultivators, £90,585. The administrative staff consists of a *munsif* and *tahsíldár*, and four honorary magistrates, besides an executive engineer and deputy magistrate attached to the Canal Department. These officers preside over 1 civil and 8 criminal courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 62 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 558; municipal and town police, 106.

Baran.—Head-quarters town of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BULANDSHAHR.

Baran.—Town in Kotah Native State of Rájputána. Population (1881) 7714.

Baránagar.—Town on the Húglí river, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, about a mile north of Calcutta. Formerly the seat of a Dutch factory, and during the greater part of last century Dutch vessels anchored here on their way to Chinsura. Here, says a document of that period, the Dutch Company's pigs are killed. Hence perhaps the name, from *baráha*, a pig: although one local legend connects the place with the Boar-incarnation of Vishnu, and another with a chief called after that *avatár* of the god. Old Dutch tiles of artistic design are still found in some of the native architecture in the neighbourhood. Ceded by the Dutch Government to the English in 1795. Originally it is said to have been a Portuguese settlement. The town is known also as the North Suburban Municipality of Calcutta. It contained a population in 1881 of 29,982, namely, Hindus, 25,753; Muhammadans, 4144; 'others,' 85. Area of town site, 4480 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £1827; expenditure, £2016. Bárá-nagar is a rising town and a place of considerable trade. The river-

side is studded with villas, the suburban residences of wealthy native gentlemen and merchants of Calcutta. Two large jute mills are worked under European supervision; but the chief article of trade is castor-oil, which is extensively manufactured in the town, and exported to Europe.

Bárá-polé (*Báráholé*).—River in Coorg, flowing westwards through the Madras District of Malabár into the Arabian Sea. It rises with the Lakshmantirtha and Pápanáshe in the Brahmagiri Hills in the Kiggatnád Sub-division of Coorg, and flows for several miles in almost a straight line. Its upper course lies amid deep gorges and wild forest scenery, one of its tributaries falling over a perpendicular rock of great height, forming a beautiful cascade near the Kudiál coffee estate. On the Coorg frontier it also forms a fine waterfall of 200 feet, which is seldom visited on account of the difficult character of the country. Its drainage area covers 192 square miles. In the District of Malabár it is navigable from its mouth, near the village of Chirákal, up to 16 miles from the foot of the Gháts. Its chief tributary is the Kallu-holé. On the road to Cannanore it is spanned by several bridges.

Bárásat.—Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between 22° 36′ 45″ and 22° 57′ 15″ N. lat., and between 88° 25′ and 88° 48′ E. long.; area, 389 square miles; number of villages, 813—of houses, 50,220, of which 47,405 are occupied. Population (1881) 272,574, namely, 128,084 Hindus, 144,445 Muhammadans, and 45 Christians. Average density of population, 700·70 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·09; houses per square mile, 129·10; persons per village, 335; persons per occupied house, 5·75. The Sub-division contains the *thánás* (police circles) of Bárásat, Degangá, Habra, and Naihátí. It was formed in 1861, when the old District of this name was included in the Twenty-four Parganás.

Bárásat.—Town in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and head-quarters of Bárásat Sub-division. Lat. 22° 43′ 24″ N., long. 88° 31′ 45″ E.; area, 5760 acres. Population (1881) 10,533, namely, 5702 Hindus, 4807 Muhammadans, and 24 'others.' Area of town site, 5760 acres. Municipal income in 1881, £820. Bárásat was until 1861 the seat of a joint-magistrate, several *parganás* transferred from Nadiyá and Jessor in 1834 being known as 'Bárásat District.' In 1861 the joint-magistracy was abolished, and Bárásat became one of the Sub-divisions of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás. A station on the newly opened Central Bengal Railway. In the early years of the century, there was a college here for cadets on their first arrival from Europe.

Barasiá River.—A branch of the Madhumatí river in Jessor District, Bengal; flows north and south, leaving the parent stream at Khálpárá and rejoining it at Lohágará. Length, 25 miles; breadth in the rains, 230 yards. Navigable throughout the year by large boats.

Baraunda (*Baronda*).—Petty State in Bundelkhand, also called

Pathar-Kuchár. Area (1881) 238·40 square miles; 66 villages; 3220 occupied houses; population, 17,285, namely, Hindus, 16,500; Muhammadans, 182; Christians, 2; aboriginal tribes, 601. Estimated revenue of the chief, £2800. The Rájá, Rangbhir Dayál, is a Rájput of very ancient lineage. The family was confirmed in the territory by the British Government under a *sanad* in 1807. The Rájá has the right of adoption. His military force consists of 20 horse, 170 infantry and police, and 3 guns.

Baraunda.—Chief village of Baraunda State, Bundelkhand, and the favourite residence of the Rájá, situated in lat. 25° 2′ 20″ N., and long. 80° 42′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1562.

Baraut. — Town in Meerut (Merath) District, North - Western Provinces.—*See* BAROT.

Barbaspur.—*Zamíndárí* or chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; about 43 miles north-west of Ráipur, lying between 21° 40′ 45″ and 21° 43′ N. lat., and between 81° 10′ 15″ and 81° 12′ 30″ E. long. The estate consists of 21 villages, and formerly composed part of the Gandai estate. Area, 43 square miles; occupied houses, 1145; population (1881) 3715, namely, 1848 males and 1867 females.

Bárbighá.—Town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 14′ N., long. 85° 49′ E. Population (1881) 7904, namely, 6531 Hindus and 1373 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 220 acres.

Bárda (or *Jaitwar*).—A Division or *pranth* of Káthiáwár, Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 21° 11′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and between 69° 30′ and 70° 7′ E. long.; estimated area, 570 square miles; population (1881) 46,980. Bounded north and north-east by Hállár, east by Sorath, and south-west by the Arabian Sea—the coast extending from north-west to south-east a distance of 63 miles. The tract belongs to the Ráná of Porbandar.

Bárda Hills.—From 12 to 18 miles distant from the coast, near Porbandar, in Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency; they form a circular cluster about 30 miles in circumference, and are visible from a distance of from 25 to 30 miles. From the north they appear grouped in three distinct peaks. That most towards the left, called Venu, is the highest, rising to about 1730 feet above the sea. The well-watered and bamboo-covered slopes of the Bárda Hills, formed in disturbed times a favourite refuge for outlaws.

Bardhá.—Village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; 21 miles north-west of Hatta, and head-quarters of an estate covering 17,531 acres, being the largest in Damoh District. A police outpost.

Bárdia (*Bára*).—A guaranteed Thákurate under the Western Málwá Agency of Central India.

Bardoli.—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 222 square miles. Population (1881) 76,100. The whole area

is occupied by Government villages, there being no alienated villages in the Sub-division, which forms a richly-wooded plain, with stretches of grass land covered with date, palm, and *babúl* trees. Towards the west, the Sub-division has the benefit of the sea-breeze, and is well supplied with water. The climate of the eastern part is hotter and somewhat feverish. The rates of assessment introduced in 1864–65 remain in force until 1893–94. Contains 124 villages.

Bardoli.—Chief town of the Bardoli Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 8′ N., long. 73° 9′ E. Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional, revenue, and police offices, the town has a post-office and a dispensary.

Bardwán (sometimes spelt *Burdwan*, correctly *Vardhamána*).—A Division or Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 21° 35′ and 24° 35′ N. lat., and between 86° 35′ and 88° 32′ 45″ E. long: area, 13,855 square miles. Population (1881) 7,393,954 souls. Comprises the six Districts of BARDWAN, HUGLI, HOWRAH, MIDNAPUR, BANKURA, and BIRBHUM (all of which see separately). It is bounded on the north by the Districts of the Santál Parganás and Murshidábád, on the east by the Districts of Nadiyá and the Twenty-four Parganás, on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Balasor District, and on the west by Morbhanj State and Mánbhúm and Singhbhúm Districts. Number of towns and villages, 30,054; number of occupied houses, 1,407,761; unoccupied houses, 132,940; total, 1,540,661. The population consists of 6,208,208 Hindus (83·9 per cent. of total population); 957,630 Muhammadans; Sikhs, 44; Christians, 4460; Buddhists, 363; Brahmos, 28; Jains, 3; Jews, 16; Pársís, 3; and 'others,' 223,199, of whom 217,254 were Santáls, the remainder consisting of other unspecified aboriginal tribes. Average density of population, 534 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·17; houses per square mile, 111·20; persons per village, 246, per house, 5·25. Number of males, 3,606,699, or 48·6 per cent. of the total population. Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £899,345, or an average of 2s. 0⅜d. per acre of gross area. Total rental paid by cultivators, £1,989,672, including cesses, or an average of 4s. 5¾d. per acre of total area.

Bardwán (*Burdwan*). — A British District under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 22° 55′ and 23° 53′ N. lat., and between 86° 52′ and 88° 30′ E. long.; area, 2697 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,391,823 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Santál Parganás, and by Bírbhúm and Murshidábád Districts; on the east by Nadiyá District, the boundary line for nearly the whole distance being formed by the Bhágírathí or Húglí river; on the south by the Districts of Húglí, Midnapur, and Bánkurá; and on the west by Mánbhúm.

Physical Aspects.—The District is for the most part flat, and the scenery tame and uninteresting; the only exception being the north-western corner adjoining the Santál Parganás, where the country is undulating and covered with jungle, which gives shelter to leopards, wolves, and other wild animals. Except in this corner of the District, the land is covered with large rice fields, and studded with little hamlets hidden among clumps of bamboos, palms, plantains, and mangoes. Large trees are scarce. The soil consists of an alluvial deposit of great depth. There are no hills in the District. The principal rivers which flow through Bardwán are the Dámodar, the Dhalkisor or Dwárkeswar, the Kharí, the Bánká, and the Ajai, all of which eventually join the Bhágírathí or Húglí. The Dámodar marks a portion of the western boundary of the District, and the Ajai forms a natural boundary line for some distance on the north. The Barákhar, too, though not properly speaking a river of Bardwán, flows for a short distance along its north-west boundary and separates it from Mánbhúm District until it falls into the Dámodar. The Bánká rises near Bardwán town, and flows a circuitous westerly and north-westerly course for about 60 miles. It is connected with the Dámodar Canal by sluices, and supplies the Eden Canal with water throughout the year. It is also the chief source of the water supply of the town of Bardwán. The Eden Canal, called after a late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, is an irrigation channel, about 20 miles in length, reaching from the suburbs of Bardwán town to Selimábád, at the mouth of the Kána *nadí* in the south of the District. A number of small tributaries of these rivers rise in and flow through the District, and a network of small creeks and watercourses intersects the country. A curious change in the course of the Bhágírathí took place in the beginning of this century, when the stream suddenly changed its course and left the town of Nadiyá, which was formerly on the east bank, a considerable distance on the west. With this exception, no great changes have recently taken place in the river courses of this District. The towns containing a large community chiefly supported by river traffic are—Kálná (Culna), Kátwá (Cutwa), Dainhát, Bhausingh, Millipur, and Uddhanpur, on the Bhágírathí, where a large trade is carried on in salt, jute, and cloth; and Selímábád, Bábnabárí, and Kasbá, on the Dámodar, where the traffic consists chiefly in coal, rice, and timber. Fishing furnishes an occupation to a great number of persons on the Bhágírathí, Dámodar, and Dhalkkisor, and along the internal rivers and channels. There are no large marshy tracts in Bardwán requiring reclamation; but it is a very common practice to embank the smaller rivers and streams, with a view to cultivation, and to the irrigation of the fields. These embankments and dams form a serious obstruction to the natural drainage of the District, and are supposed to have largely

contributed towards the prevalent fever among the people. The mineral products of Bardwán consist of coal (*vide post*, p. 133, and also RANIGANJ), iron, red limestone, sandstone, and laterite. The principal jungle product is *tasar* silk, chiefly found in the Búd-búd Sub-division, where it is collected by the aboriginal tribe of Bauris. There are no large uncultivated pasture grounds in the District, all the available land being taken up for tillage. The wild animals consist of a few tigers, bears, and wolves, found in the jungly Ráníganj Sub-division. Poisonous snakes are common. Among small game, wild fowl and ducks, peacocks, hares, green pigeons, partridges and snipe are met with.

History.—Bardwán is first mentioned in Muhammadan histories in 1574, in which year, after Dáúd Khán's defeat and death at Rájmahal, his family was captured in the town of Bardwán by Akbar's troops. About ten years later, the District formed the scene of several engagements between Kuttu, the son of Dáúd Khán, and the imperialist forces. In 1624, Prince Kharram, afterwards the Emperor Sháh Jahán, captured the fort and town of Bardwán. Soon afterwards, the founder of the Bardwán family (Abu Rái, a Kshattriya by caste) immigrated into Bengal from the Punjab, and settled in Bardwán. Henceforth the history of the District is identical with that of the ruling family. Abu Rái was in 1657 appointed *Chaudhari*, and afterwards became a *Faujdár* or military commander under the Muhammadan Government. The estate rapidly increased in size, and Abu Rái's great-grandson, Krishna Rám Rái, obtained a *farmán* from the Emperor Aurangzeb. It was in the reign of this Emperor (1696) that Subah Singh, a Bardwán *tálukdár*, raised the standard of rebellion against the Empire, and, assisted by Rahím Khán, an Afghán chief, slew in battle the Rájá of Bardwán and captured his whole family, except one son, Jagat Rám Rái. Subah Singh was stabbed by one of the Rájá's daughters, whom he attempted to outrage. Jagat Rám Rái succeeded his father, and was in turn succeeded by his son, Kirtti Chandrá Rái, a daring and adventurous man, who largely increased the *zamíndárí* by adding to it the estates of the Rájás of Chandrakoná, Bardá, and Balghará, whom he dispossessed after conquering them in fight. He also attacked and defeated Badyajáma, the powerful Rájá of Bishnupur, with whom, however, he afterwards became reconciled.

In the beginning of the 18th century, the Maráthás, after plundering the Western Districts, made their appearance in Bardwán, encamping at Kátwá (Cutwa), and Badyajáma and Jagat Rái assisted the Nawáb to drive them out. This was no easy task; and in the time of the Mahárájá Tilak Chandra Rái (1744–71), who succeeded Jagat Rái's son, the invaders, having laid waste the border principalities, overran Bardwán. 'How can I relate to you,' writes the Mahárájá to the English authorities, 'the present deplorable situation of this place!

Three months the Maráthás remained here, burning, plundering, and laying waste the whole country; but now, thank God, they have all gone, but the inhabitants are not yet returned. The inhabitants have lost almost all they were worth!' Grievous as was the state of affairs thus disclosed, the sufferings of Bardwán at the hands of the Maráthás were insignificant compared with those of Bírbhúm, where the dry soil and fine undulating surface afforded precisely the riding-ground which their cavalry loved. The swampy nature of the country in Bardwán protected it to a great extent, and the District would have rapidly recovered from the predatory incursions referred to, had it not been subjected to natural scourges scarcely less terrible than the Maráthá horse. The great dearth of 1770 affected the District most disastrously. The Mahárájá died in the midst of the desolation, and his heir had to melt down the household ornaments and beg a loan from Government in order to perform the funeral ceremonies. For the next twenty years, the family remained in a state of chronic debt, and the relations between the Rájás and the English authorities were of the most troublesome and unsatisfactory character.

The Permanent Settlement (1793) brought about a new order of things, and, after a long period of poverty and ruin, Mahárájá Tej Chandra restored the financial position of the family. He was succeeded in 1833 by the late Mahárájá, Mahtáb Chand, who managed the estates with so much success that the house is now again one of the most prosperous in Bengal. The Mahárájá assisted the English authorities in the Santál rebellion in 1855, and during the Mutiny of 1857 he did everything in his power to strengthen the hands of the Government, by placing elephants and bullock-carts at the disposal of the authorities, and keeping open the roads from Bardwán to Bírbhúm and Kátwá, so that there was no interruption of intelligence between the seat of Government and the anxiously watched stations of Bírbhúm and Barhampur. The Mahárájá died in 1879, and was succeeded by his adopted son, Aftab Chand Mahtab Chand, who, on attaining his majority at the end of 1881, was installed in all his father's honours and possessions.

Many changes have taken place in the jurisdiction of the District of Bardwán. When it was ceded to the English in 1760 by Mír Kásim Khán, together with Midnapur and Chittagong, it comprised, in addition to the present District known as Bardwán, those of Bánkurá and Húglí, and a third part of Bírbhúm. Bánkurá and Húglí were afterwards made separate Districts, and a number of transfers to and from the adjoining Districts were subsequently made.

Population.—The population of Bardwán, according to the Census of 1872, but allowing for transfers since that year, which have decreased the area from 3523 to 2697 square miles, was 1,483,850. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 1,391,823, showing a decrease of

92,027, or 6·2 per cent., in the nine years. This decrease is attributed to the ravages caused by the malarious fever known as the 'Bardwán fever,' which has been causing great mortality in the low-lying country throughout the Bardwán Division for the last twenty years. [For further particulars, see Medical Section, *post*, pp. 135, 136.] The male population in 1881 numbered 668,295, and the female 723,528; proportion of males in the total population, 48·3 per cent. Area of the District, 2697 square miles; average density of population, 516·06 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 3667; villages per square mile, 1·36; number of occupied houses, 289,047, with an average of 4·82 inmates in each; unoccupied houses, 34,343. The great majority of the inhabitants, 1,120,676, or 80·5 per cent. of the total population, are Hindus. The other religious denominations are — Muhammadans, 263,816, or 18·8 per cent.; Christians, 910; Jews, 3; and aboriginal Santáls, 6418. The higher castes of Hindus include — Bráhmans, 107,684; Rájputs, 7218; and Káyasths, 33,069. The Baniyás, or trading caste, numbers 35,305. Of the lower castes, the most numerous are the Bagdís, a degraded caste of labourers and fishermen, 148,788; and the Sadgops, the principal cultivating caste, 112,111. Of the remaining Hindu castes, the following are returned as numbering over ten thousand: — Baurí, 82,254; Goálá, 70,262; Chamár, 49,229; Dom, 39,030; Kaibartta, 31,592; Telí, 28,978; Kalu, 22,229; Hari, 22,121; Tántí, 20,776; Lohár, 20,601; Sunrí, 19,873; Nápit, 18,034; Chandál, 16,887; Kumbhar, 13,045; Madak, 12,353; Barhai, 10,131. Caste-rejecting Hindus numbered 28,753, of whom 28,652 were Vaishnavs. The Muhammadan community is divided according to sect into 256,854 Sunnís and 4274 Shiás, while 2688 are returned as unspecified. Of the 910 Christians, 311 were Europeans, 259 Eurasians, 138 natives or Asiatics, and the remainder unspecified. The occupations of the people (males) are returned in 6 classes, as follows:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officials and the learned professions, 22,894; (2) Domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 24,035; (3) Commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 18,003; (4) Agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 255,756; (5) Manufacturing, artisan, mining, and other industrial classes, 62,429; and (6) Indefinite and unproductive (comprising 58,456 labourers, 1430 men of rank and property, and 225,292 unspecified, including male children), 285,178. There are only five towns in the District containing each more than 5000 inhabitants, and the general population is almost entirely rural. These towns are:— BARDWAN (population, 34,080); KALNA, or Culna (population, 10,463); RANIGANJ (population, 10,792); KATWA, or Cutwa (population, 6820); and DAIN-HAT (population, 5789). The total urban population thus disclosed is 67,944, the balance of 1,323,879 forming the rural popula-

tion. Of the 3667 villages and towns, 1554 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 1280, from 200 to 500; 622, from 500 to 1000; 182, from 1000 to 2000; 19, from 2000 to 3000; 5, from 3000 to 5000; 2, from 5000 to 10,000; 2, from 10,000 to 15,000; and 1, from 20,000 to 50,000 inhabitants.

Bardwán is the principal town and civil station of the District, and was formerly the head-quarters of the Commissioner of the Division; it contains the palace and fine gardens of the Mahárája; the Sivalaya, a collection of 108 temples arranged in two circles; and the shrine of Pírbaharam. The municipality of Bardwán is composed of 93 little villages lying close to each other and surrounding the town proper. Kálná (Culna), the port and principal seat of trade of the District, is on the Bhágírathí; in Muhammadan times it must have been a place of importance, as the ruins of a large fort are still to be seen; the Mahárájá of Bardwán has a palace here. Rániganj, on the Dámodar, is principally interesting as being the centre of the coal industry of the District, an account of which will be found in another section (*infra*). Kátwá (Cutwa) is situated at the confluence of the Bhágírathí and Ajai rivers, and is one of the chief centres of trade in the District; in former times it was defended by a fort of which scarcely a vestige remains, and was regarded as the key to Murshidábád, the capital of Bengal under the later Muhammadan governors. It was here that Chaitanya took upon himself the ascetic life, and the place is consequently considered sacred by the Vaishnavs.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bardwán, as in other Districts of Bengal, is rice. The *áus* or autumn crop is sown in May and reaped in August or September; and the *áman* or *haimantik* (winter) crop is sown in June or July and reaped in November or December. *Aman* rice requires much water, and is always sown on *sáli* or low-lying land, which retains more or less moisture all the time the crop is in the ground; it is always transplanted. *Aus* rice, on the other hand, is grown on *soná* land, which is higher and therefore drier than *sáli*. The Eden Canal, constructed for irrigation purposes, runs for a distance of about 20 miles from Bardwán town to Selimábád, in the south of the District. A scheme for clearing out the silted-up beds of old drainage channels over extensive tracts of country, is now (1883) under consideration. Among the other crops raised in the District, are wheat, barley, gram, peas, mustard, *til*, castor-oil, sugar-cane, mulberry, *pán*, potatoes, hemp, cotton, and indigo. There are two indigo crops; the spring indigo gives the best out-turn, but the yield is very precarious, depending almost entirely on a regular alternation of sunny and showery weather during the time the plant is on the ground. Scientific irrigation is unknown in the District, but it is a common custom to dam up the lesser streams with a view to the irriga-

tion of the neighbouring fields; and the systematic obstruction of the drainage channels by this practice is said to be one of the causes of the prevalence of the fever which devastates the District. Manure is abundantly used, and consists principally of cow-dung, tank-deposits, and oil-cake. A cultivator's holding exceeding 35 acres in extent forms a large-sized farm, while anything below 3½ acres is looked upon as a very small one. A holding consisting of 10 acres of land of all descriptions, and paying a total rent of £6 per annum, is a fair-sized comfortable holding for a husbandman. A peasant, with a small farm of 5 acres, is not, however, so well off as a retail shopkeeper, or a man drawing a pay of 16s. a month; a sum which affords a comfortable support for a middling-sized household. Nearly two-thirds of the husbandmen of Bardwán District hold their lands with a right of occupancy, the remaining one-third being simple tenants-at-will. There are not many cases of small proprietors who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands without either a superior landlord above, or a sub-tenant or labourer beneath them. A fair out-turn from lands paying a rent of 18s. an acre would be 22 to 35 cwts. of unhusked paddy per acre, worth from £1, 10s. to £2, 8s. The rates of rent vary greatly in the different Sub-divisions of the District, as well as for the different kinds of land. The rental of *soná* land, which generally gives two crops in the year, varies from 9s. an acre for fourth-class to £1, 16s. per acre for first-class land; and for *sálí*, or one-crop land, from 4s. 6d. for fourth-class to 18s. for first-class land. The Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, amounted in 1881 to £338,681, or an average of 2s. 11d. per acre of total area. Total rental paid by cultivators, £552,658, or an average of 6s. 6d. per acre of total area.

Wages generally have much increased of late years, and especially since the railway works were commenced. Agricultural labourers now get from 12s. to £1 a month, and smiths and carpenters £1 to £1, 10s. a month, or considerably more than double the former rates of wages. Cheapness of food does not seem to result in any corresponding fluctuation in the rates of wages; in 1871–72, for example, food was generally cheap, but the price of labour did not fall. The price of the best cleaned rice in that year was 8s. 10d. a cwt., and of coarse rice 4s. 5d. a cwt. In 1882, rice was cheaper than in 1871, due to two years' exceptionally good harvests. After the winter harvest in 1882, coarse rice sold at 3s. 9d., and for a time as low as 2s. 10d. a cwt. There seems to have been an increase in the prices of rice, but there are no materials previous to 1870 from which a correct estimate can be formed; the only earlier year for which there are figures is 1862, when the average price of coarse rice in Bardwán town was 3s. 3⅛d. per cwt. Bardwán District contained in 1882, 2163 recorded *lákhiráj* or

rent-free tenures. The service tenures of the District include nearly 200 *ghátwálí* holdings, the nature of which is described in the article on BANKURA DISTRICT.

Natural Calamities.—Before the construction of the railway and the Dámodar embankment, floods were common in Bardwán; in 1770, 1823, and 1855, serious inundations occurred, causing great damage to property and loss of life. The Dámodar and other embankments, which have been constructed by and are under the control of the Government, have secured for the District immunity from this calamity. Drought, occasioned by insufficient rainfall, occasionally occurs; and as until recently there was no system of artificial irrigation, and little marsh land in the District capable of being brought into cultivation in a year of drought, such a calamity was in no way provided against. The recent opening of the Eden Canal, and the proposed clearing out of old silted-up channels, will afford means of irrigation in future seasons of drought. Bardwán suffered severely in the famine of 1866, although the generally prosperous condition of the cultivating classes enabled them to oppose a great power of resistance. In March 1866, coarse rice, which usually sells at 3s. 5d. to 5s. 10d. a cwt., was selling at 12s. 3d., and in June the price had risen to 13s. 8d. a cwt. The total amount expended on relief was £1455. An equal amount was disbursed by the Mahárájá, and an additional sum of £483 was granted, and £421 advanced, for special works. The average daily number of paupers relieved (exclusive of town paupers supported by the liberality of the Mahárájá) was 845 in July, 1490 in August, and 327 in September. The maximum price of common husked rice was 14s. 9d. per cwt., and of unhusked rice about half that amount.

Commerce and Trade.—The means of communication in Bardwán, except in certain tracts bordering on Húglí and Bánkurá, are sufficient. The roads are on the whole in fairly good condition, and the East India Railway has two main lines running through the District, with stations at Memári, Saktigarh, Bardwán, Kánu Junction, Mánkur, Pánágarh, Durgápur, Andál, Rániganj, Siársol, Nimchá, Asansol, Sitárámpur, Barákhar, Gushkhará, and Bhediá. Several of these places, from being small villages, have developed, since the opening of the railway, into thriving centres of trade. Extensive pottery works for the manufacture of pipes, fire-bricks, tiles, etc., have been established by a large European firm in Calcutta. Although carried on for years at a loss, and amid great difficulties, Messrs. Burn & Co. have succeeded in successfully competing with imported articles of this nature. The principal native manufacture of the District is the weaving of silk *sárís* and *dhutís*; there is also a considerable number of workers in gold, silver, and brass. The local manufactures as well as the District crops, are more than sufficient to meet the demand of the local

markets, and are largely exported. The chief articles of export are rice, tobacco, pulses of all kinds, wheat, rape-seed, oil-cake, jute, sugar, salt, English and country-made cloth, cotton, etc.; the principal imports consist of English piece-goods, manufactured iron, salt, spices, cocoa-nuts, and castor-oil.

Coal.—The Ráníganj Sub-division of Bardwán District is noted for its coal mines, of which the principal, worked in 1881, are at Ráníganj, Madhabpur, Sánkhtaria, Dhosál, Niámatpur, Desagarh, Mangalpur, Dhádká, Belruí, Baria, Siársol, Charanpur, Lakhipur, Sibpur, and Jot Janaki. Most of these belong to companies which have their head offices at Calcutta. A full account of this industry will be found in the article on RANIGANJ. The coal-field extends from a few miles east of the town of Ráníganj to several miles west of the Barákhar river, the greatest length from east to west being about 30 miles, and the greatest breadth from north to south about 18 miles. The area included by the coal-bearing strata is estimated at about 500 square miles. The mineral is described as 'a non-coking bituminous coal, composed of distinct laminæ of a bright jetty coal and of a dull, more earthy rock.' The average amount of ash is from 14 to 15 per cent., varying from 8 to 25 per cent.

The miners are chiefly semi-aboriginal or aboriginal castes, such as Baurís or Santáls, but low-caste Hindus and the poorer class of Muhammadans also work in the collieries. Their pay is high, and even in 1860 a miner's family, consisting of a man and his wife with three children, earned 18s. or even more a month, being about double the wage of an ordinary peasant or day-labourer at present. In 1881, there were altogether 37 coal mines at work in the District, of which 17 turned out upwards of 10,000 tons each per annum. The greatest out-turn was in 1868, when 564,933 tons were raised, but this is above the average. In 1880, the out-turn from 47 mines was 525,472 tons; in 1881, the trade was in a somewhat depressed state, and the output fell to 442,933 tons from 37 mines. The chief objections to the employment of Ráníganj coal in India are—(1) its non-coking property; (2) the small proportion it contains of fixed carbon, on which the value of coal for heating purposes depends; (3) the large proportion of ash, a greater quantity of Ráníganj coal being required to do the same work as good English coal; and (4) its liability to spontaneous combustion, due to the large proportion of iron pyrites it contains.

It has been proved practically that no Indian coal can do more than two-thirds, while most of it does not do more than one-half, the work of English coal. The present price of Ráníganj coal varies from £1, 2s. 3d. to £1, 5s. 7d. a ton in Calcutta. The question of its suitability for blast furnaces, for the manufacture of iron from the rich

clay iron and deposits of magnetic iron which abound in the neighbourhood, has not yet been settled; one of the principal drawbacks is the great scarcity of flux. The whole matter, however, is too extensive to be noticed in a short article, and the reader is referred to vol. iv. of the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (pp. 107–133) for a full discussion of the subject, which is of very great importance and seriously affects the future of Ráníganj.

Administration.—It is impossible to compare in a satisfactory manner the revenue and expenditure of the District at different periods, because of the numerous and important changes which have taken place in the constitution and area of the District since its cession to the Company in 1760. In 1870–71, the total net revenue of the District from all sources amounted to £388,773, and the net civil expenditure to £64,435. Since then, although the area of the District has been materially reduced by transfers to and from Húglí, Bánkurá, and Mánbhúm Districts, in 1881–82 the total revenue amounted to £381,077. The total land revenue in 1760 was returned at £243,891; in 1881, it amounted to £303,870, equal to an average payment of £62 by each of the 4925 estates, or £48 by each of the 6352 individual proprietors or coparceners. The police of the District, at the end of 1880, consisted of a regular police force of 2 superior and 75 subordinate officers, and 312 constables, maintained at a cost of £7982; a municipal force of 12 officers and 213 men, costing £1995; and a village watch of 11,861 men, maintained (by grants of land, and in some cases also by money contributions from the villagers) at an estimated cost of £24,851: total police force of all kinds, 12,475 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 109 of the population, maintained at an aggregate cost of £34,828, equal to 6d. per head of the population.

There are 17 *thánás* or police stations in the District. The total number of police cases, 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable,' instituted during the year, was 5727, in which 3213 persons were convicted. There are 4 jails in the District; the average daily number of prisoners was, in 1881, 136, or 1 person always in jail to every 10,234 of the population. The educational statistics show that much progress has been made during the last few years. In 1856–57, the District as then constituted contained 23 schools, with 1681 pupils; in 1870–71, the number of schools was 305, and of pupils 12,855; the total cost of Government and aided schools in the former year was £915, and in the latter £10,630. By 1880–81, the number of aided primary schools alone, under the supervision of the Education Department, amounted to 1228, attended by 36,284 pupils. The unaided inspected schools numbered 31, with 1022 pupils. The unaided schools, not yet under Departmental supervision, were returned

at 428. Besides these, there were in the same year six primary girls' schools, containing 97 pupils. On the 31st March 1882, there were altogether 1511 inspected schools of all classes, with an attendance of 45,442 pupils. For administrative purposes Bardwán District is divided into 4 Sub-divisions and 17 police circles (*thánás*) as follows, namely:—(1) the *Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division, comprising the 8 police circles of Bardwán, Sáhibganj, Khandghosh, Raoná, Gangur, Selimábád, Bud-Bud, and Ausgrám; (2) Ráníganj, comprising the 3 police circles of Ráníganj, Asansol, and Kaksá; (3) Kátwá (Cutwa), comprising the three police circles of Kátwá, Ketugrám, and Mangalkot; and (4) Kálná (Culna), with the three police circles of Kálná, Purbasthali, and Mantreswar. These, again, are sub-divided into 71 fiscal divisions (*parganás*). The gross municipal income of the 5 municipalities in the District in 1881–82 was £8683; expenditure, £8420; average rate of municipal taxation, 2s. 6⅝d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual temperature of Bardwán is 81° F., and the annual rainfall, 60·31 inches. Since 1866, the District has suffered very seriously from the ravages of malarious endemic fever. The disease seems to have first attracted notice about 1824 in Jessor District, whence it has gradually extended in a north-westerly direction through Nadiyá, the Twenty-four Parganás, and Húglí, until, in 1863, it made its first appearance in the south-east of Bardwán District. In 1866 and the three following years it raged with great severity, but with varying intensity in different parts of the District. In the high-lying northern tracts, where the formation is laterite, there has been very little fever, but in the lower and purely alluvial tracts, there has been an enormous decrease in the population between 1872 and 1881, due to the ravages of this fever. It is described as 'an exaggerated and congestive form of malarious fever, most frequently of the intermittent type, generally assuming the most intense and asthenic character in localities where the recognised predisposing causes of the disease preponderate most.' The nature of the country, namely, a badly-drained, water-logged alluvial tract, and the character and sequel of the fever, leave no room for doubt as to its malarious origin. For six months of the year, from February to July, when the soil is dry, the District is healthy and fever uncommon. During the rainy season from June to September, the country is submerged, and with the drying up of the water, which commences in October, the fever breaks out and lasts until the following February. The insanitary habits of the people, their spare diet, bad water-supply and scanty clothing, combine to render them liable to attacks of fever.

In some years, the disease prevails in a virulent epidemic form. Many different causes have been assigned for the increased severity

of the fever of late years, some supposing it to result from the interference with the natural drainage of the country by river and railway embankments, by changes in the courses of the large rivers, and by the silting and drying up of the channels of the small streams; while others attribute it to the drinking water, or defective sanitation, etc.; and others, again, believe that some influence is at work, the operation of which is not fully understood. Be the cause of the fever what it may, there is no doubt that with improved drainage, a better water-supply, and the spread of sanitary knowledge among the people, the ravages of the fever will abate. Attention is now being bestowed on all these points by the Municipalities and District officers. Schemes for a water-supply to the municipal towns are under consideration, and the Eden Canal supplies pure water from the Dámodar to a large tract of country which hitherto depended entirely upon polluted tanks. The silted-up beds of old drainage channels are also to be cleared. The fever at present (1883) is very much less than ten years ago, and at least further improvement may be anticipated year by year. [For further particulars regarding Bardwán District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iv. pp. 17 to 201 (Trübner, 1876); also for information regarding the state of the country on the accession of British Rule, see my *Annals of Rural Bengal* (Smith & Elder, 1868). Also *Census Report* for 1881; the *Report on the Bardwán and Húglí Fever* (Government Press, Calcutta); and *Provincial Administration Reports* for 1880 to 1882.]

Bardwán.—The head-quarters Sub-division of the District of the same name in Bengal, lying between 22° 57′ 30″ and 23° 32′ N. lat., and between 87° 32′ 45″ and 88° 16′ 45″ E. long.; area, 1242 square miles, with 1726 villages and 130,817 occupied houses. Population (1881) 639,593, namely, 500,007 Hindus (or 78·1 per cent. of the Sub-divisional population), 139,445 Muhammadans, and 141 Christians. Average density of population, 515 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·39; persons per village, 370; houses per square mile, 119·71; persons per occupied house, 4·89. The Sub-division contains the 8 *thánás* (police circles) of Bardwán, Sahibganj, Khandgosh, Raona, Gangúr, Bud-Búd, and Ausgrám. In 1882 there were 17 magisterial and revenue courts; and the total police force consisted of 6612 men, including village watch. The separate cost of Sub-divisional administration was returned at £5137.

Bardwán.—Principal town and civil station of the District of the same name, situated on the Bánká *nadí*. Lat. 23° 14′ 10″ N., long. 87° 53′ 55″ E. Population in 1872, 32,321; in 1881, 34,080, namely, 23,683 Hindus, 10,263 Muhammadans, and 134 'others.' Municipal revenue in 1881–82, £5731; expenditure, £5669; average rate of taxation, 2s. 5¼d. per head of municipal population. The town

has suffered very severely from the fever which has been ravaging the District since 1863, and of which an account will be found in the article on BARDWAN DISTRICT. The principal buildings in the town are the palace of the Mahárájá, a fine large edifice, many of the apartments in which are furnished in European fashion; the Sivalayá, a collection of 108 temples arranged in two circles, one within the other; and the shrine of Pírbaharam. The town figures more than once in history, having been captured by Prince Kharram (afterwards the Emperor Sháh Jahán) in 1624, and again in 1695 by the Hindu rebel Subah Singh, who slew the Rájá, and was soon afterwards himself killed by the Rájá's daughter, whom he attempted to outrage. There is a station of the East Indian Railway at Bardwán; distance from Calcutta, 67 miles.

Bardwár.—Forest reserve in the south of Kámrúp District, Assam Province; bounded on the west by the Kulsí river. The trees are chiefly *sál* (Shorea robusta). There is a second forest reserve to the north. Total area of the two tracts, 25·40 square miles.

Bareilly (*Bareli*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 3′ and 28° 54′ N. lat., and between 79° 3′ and 79° 50′ E. long.; area, 1614 square miles. Population in 1881, 1,030,936 souls. Bareilly is a District of the Rohilkhand Division, and is bounded on the north by the Tarái District; on the east by the new District of Pilibhit; on the south by Sháhjahánpur and Budáun Districts; and on the west by Budáun and Rámpur State. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of Bareilly (Bareli).

Physical Aspects.—The District of Bareilly, though lying just below the last slopes of the Himálayas, forms itself a level plain, with no greater variety of surface than that caused by the shifting channels of its numerous streams. Hills or natural elevations nowhere break the general level, but the distinctions of upland and lowland are well marked, and the intervening terraces are everywhere conspicuous. The largest alluvial plain is that of the Rámgangá, which reaches in one place a width of 16 miles. Over the whole of this broad valley, the river has wandered at various times, fertilizing the land through which it passed with rich deposits of vegetable mould. The difference in height between the lowlands and the central plain ranges from 10 to 25 feet; while the general elevation of the country rises gradually from 520 feet above sea-level in the extreme south, near Fatehganj, to 658 feet on the farthest northern boundary, just beneath the Tarái. The upland does not consist of a dead flat, but is composed of gentle undulations, occasionally rising into rolling sandhills. As a whole, however, the District may be described as a level tract, intersected by numerous rivers and thickly dotted with noble groves, which form

the characteristic feature of the landscape. Almost every village possesses an abundant supply of mango and *shisham* trees, while many have beautiful plantations of bamboos. In seasons of drought elsewhere, the *khádar* or alluvial tract of Bareilly is clothed with magnificent crops. Inundations do more good than harm, by destroying the white ants and depositing layers of fresh soil, which supply the place of manure.

The District is naturally traversed by several sub-Himálayan streams, of which the chief are the Rámgangá and the Baigul. The former river has deep and well-defined banks, but frequently changes its course through the friable alluvial channel in which it runs. Some twenty years since, the main stream passed below Gaini, 10 miles west of the city; then it cut itself a path into the Dojora, and ran beneath the outskirts of Bareilly; and during the rains of 1871, it once more returned to its ancient bed. The other principal streams are the Nakatia, the Dioranian, the Sanka, the Dojora, the Kicha, and the Arail, many of which are used for purposes of irrigation.

History.—In the earliest times, the country east of the Ganges, now known as Rohilkhand, bore the general name of Kather; but when Sambhal and Budáun were erected into separate governments by the Musalmáns, this term was restricted to the territory lying east of the Rámgangá. A highly civilised Aryan race appears to have occupied the tract from the 8th to the 11th century, when they were probably driven out by Ahírs from the Nepál Hills, Bhíls from the jungles to the south, and Bhars from the forests of Oudh, during the general expulsion of the Aryan settlers from the sub-Himálayan border. About 1200 A.D. the greater part of the District had relapsed into forest; but large primitive bricks, fragments of Buddhist sculpture, and other evidences of ancient prosperity still lie scattered about the country, especially in the neighbourhood of Fatehgarh and Rámnagar. Shaháb-ud-dín, or his general Kutb-ud-dín, captured Bangarh about the year 1194; but nothing more is heard of the Muhammadans in the District till Mahmúd II. made his way along the foot of the hills to the Rámgangá in 1252. Fourteen years later, Balban, who succeeded him, marched to Kampil, put all the Hindus to the sword, and utterly crushed the Katheriyas, who had hitherto lived by violence and plunder. In 1290, Sultán Firoz invaded Kather again, and brought the country into final subjection to the Musalmán rule, which was not afterwards disputed except by the usual local revolts. Under the various dynasties which preceded the Mughal Empire, the history of Kather consists of the common events which make up the annals of that period—constant attempts at independence on the part of the District governors, followed by barbarous suppressions on the part of the central authority. The city of Bareilly itself was founded in 1537 by Bas Deo and Barel Deo, from the latter of whom

it takes its name. In 1628, Ali Kuli Khán was governor of Bareilly, which had now grown into a considerable place. In 1657, Rájá Makrand Rái founded the new city of Bareilly, cut down the forest to the west of the old town, and expelled all the Katheriyas from the neighbourhood.

A succession of regular governors followed during the palmy days of the great Mughal Emperors; but after the death of Aurangzeb, in 1707, when the unwieldy organization began to break asunder, the Hindus of Bareilly threw off the imperial yoke, refused their tribute, and commenced a series of anarchic quarrels among themselves for the supremacy of the District. Their dissensions only afforded an opportunity for the rise of a new Muhammadan power. Ali Muhammad Khán, a leader of Rohillá Patháns, defeated the governors of Bareilly and Moradábád, and made himself supreme throughout the whole Kather region. In 1744 the Rohillá chieftain conquered Kumáun right up to Almora; but two years later, the Emperor Muhammad Sháh marched against him, and Ali Muhammad was taken a prisoner to Delhi. However, the Empire was too much in need of vigorous generals to make his captivity a long one, and in 1750 he was restored to his old post in Kather. Next year he died, and a mausoleum at Aonla, in this District, still marks his burial-place. Háfiz Rahmat Khán, guardian to his sons, succeeded to the governorship of Rohilkhand, in spite of the opposition of the Emperor, who despatched the Nawáb of Farukhábád against him without effect. Háfiz defeated and slew the Nawáb, after which he marched northward and conquered Pilibhít and the Tarái. The Oudh Wazír, Safdar Jang, plundered the property of the Farukhábád Nawáb after his death, and this led to a union of the Rohillá Afgháns with those of Farukhábád. Háfiz defeated Safdar Jang, besieged Allahábád, and took part of Oudh; but the Wazír called in the aid of the Maráthás, and with them defeated the Rohillás at Bisauli, near Aonla. He then besieged them for four months at the foot of the hills; but owing to the invasion of Ahmad Sháh Durání terms were arranged, and Háfiz was made governor of Pilibhít.

After the accession of Shujá-ud-daulá as Wazír of Oudh, Háfiz joined the imperial troops in their attack upon that prince, but the Wazír bought them off by a subsidy of 5 *lákhs*. The Rohillá chieftain took advantage of Ahmad Sháh's inroad into the Doáb to make himself master of Etáwah, and during the eventful years in which Shujá-ud-daulá was engaged in his struggle with the British power, he continually strengthened himself by fortifying his towns and founding new strongholds. In 1770, Najíb-ud-daulá advanced with the Maráthá army under Sindhia and Holkar, defeated Háfiz and Zábita Khán, and forced the Rohillás to ask the aid of the Wazír. Shujá-ud-daulá became surety

for a bond of 40 *lákhs*, by which the Maráthás were induced to evacuate Rohilkhand. This bond the Rohillás were unable to meet, whereupon Shujá-ud-daulá, after getting rid of the Maráthás, attacked Rohilkhand with the help of an English force lent by Warren Hastings, and subjugated it by a desolating war. Háfiz Rahmat was slain, but Faiz-ullá, the son of Ali Muhammed, escaped to the north-west and became the leader of the Rohillás. After many negotiations he effected a treaty with Shujá-ud-daulá in 1774, by which he agreed to keep 9 *parganás* and 15 *lákhs* a year, giving up all the remainder of Rohilkhand to the Wazír (see RAMPUR). Saádat Ali was appointed governor of Bareilly under the Oudh Government. The District remained in the hands of the Wazír until 1801, when Rohilkhand, Allahábád, and Korah were ceded to the British in lieu of tribute.

Mr. Henry Wellesley, brother of the Governor-General, was appointed President of the Board of Commissioners sitting at Bareilly. In 1805, Amír Khán, a Rohillá adventurer, made an inroad into Rohilkhand, but was driven off. Disturbances occurred in 1816, in 1837, and in 1842, but the peace of the District was not seriously endangered until the Mutiny of 1857. In that year, the troops at Bareilly rose on the 31st of May. The European officers, except three, escaped to Naini Tál; and Khán Bahádur Khán, Háfiz Rahmat's grandson, was proclaimed Nawáb Názim of Rohilkhand. On the 11th of June, the mutinous soldiery went off to Delhi, and Khán Bahádur organized a government in July. Three expeditions attempted to attack Naini Tál, but without success. At the beginning of November came news of the fall of Delhi. Walidád Khán, the rebel leader in Bulandshahr, and the Nawáb of Fatehgarh then took refuge at Bareilly. A fourth expedition against Naini Tál met with no greater success than the earlier attempts. On the 25th of March 1858, the Náná Sáhib arrived at Bareilly on his flight from Oudh, and remained till the end of April; but when the commander-in-chief marched on Jalálábád he fled back again into Oudh. On the fall of Lucknow, Firoz Sháh retired to Bareilly, and took Morádábád on the 22nd of April, but was compelled to give it up again at once. The Nawáb of Najíbábád, leader of the Bijnaur rebels, joined him in the city, so that the principal insurgents were congregated together in Bareilly when the English army arrived on the 5th of May. The city was taken on the 7th, and all the chiefs fled with Khán Bahádur into Oudh.

Population.—An enumeration in 1853 returned the number of inhabitants in Bareilly District at 1,316,830. The Census of 1872 returned the population on an area of 2982 square miles at 1,507,139, or after allowing for the diminished area caused by the creation of Pilibhít into a separate District, 1,015,041. The latest Census in 1881 returned a total population of 1,030,936, showing an increase of

15,895, or 1·54 per cent., upon the corresponding area in 1872. The male population in 1881 numbered 548,010, and the female 482,926; proportion of males in total population, 53·16 per cent. Total area of District, 1614·3 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1928; number of occupied houses, 119,935; average density of population, 638·6; number of villages per square mile, 1·19; houses per village, 74·2; inmates per house, 8·5. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 790,309, or 76·6 per cent.; Musalmáns, 237,996, or 23·0 per cent.; Christians numbered 2393; Sikhs, 207: Buddhists, 15; and Pársís, 16. The agricultural population amounted to 715,785 persons, or 69·43 per cent. The principal castes are returned as follows:—Bráhmans, 48,871; Rájputs, 35,340; Baniyás, 23,151; Ahírs, 47,366; Chamárs, 93,891; Kachhis, 72,312; Kahárs, 48,751; Káyasths, 17,349; and Kúrmis, 190,560. The other Hindu castes include—Barhai, 19,243; Telí, 18,117; Dhobí, 17,493; Bhangi, 16,119; Gadáriá, 15,458; Nai, 14,844; Korí, 11,388; Kumbhar, 10,295; Ját, 9312; Gújar, 7811; Sonár, 7160; Lohár, 5548; and Lodhí, 4746. The Musalmáns are divided into 235,379 Sunnís and 2617 Shiás. The Christians include 1527 Europeans, 125 Eurasians, and 741 natives. The best cultivators in Bareilly are the Kúrmís, Lodhis, Murais, Chamárs, and Játs. The District contained in 1881 four towns with a population exceeding 5000 — namely, Bareilly including Civil Station and Cantonment, 113,417; Aonla, 13,018; Faridpur, 5881; and Siraulí Pias, 6542. The 1928 villages are classified as follows:—With less than two hundred inhabitants, 528; from two to five hundred, 789; from five hundred to a thousand, 444; from one to two thousand, 132; with from two to three thousand, 25; from three to five thousand, 6; from five to ten thousand, 2; with upwards of ten thousand, 2. A few ruined forts are scattered over the face of the country, but none of any military strength. The houses in villages have roofs of mud; in larger towns they are generally tiled, being often built of two storeys around an open courtyard; in the north, along the Tarái, some of the houses are supported on pillars, as the water in that tract approaches very near the surface of the ground. Relics of early Aryan buildings are found near Rámnagar, identified by General Cunningham with Ahichhatra, the capital of the great Panchala Des, a kingdom which stretched from the Himálayas to the Chambal. Similar ruins are found at Galoria, Devala, Lilaur, and elsewhere in the District. As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returns the male population under the six following main classes:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, all Government officials, and the learned professions, 10,577; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 3332; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, and carriers, 8537; (4) agricultural and

pastoral class, 261,320; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, 60,812; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 20,265 general labourers, and 179,909 male children, and unspecified), 200,174.

Agriculture.—The soil of Bareilly is divided into upland and lowland, the latter consisting chiefly of the alluvial basins watered by the rivers Dioranian, Nakalia, Dogora, Baigúl, and Rámgangá. Some of these low-lying tracts are covered twice a year by rich crops of wheat and sugar-cane; others, more sandy and less fertile, produce only a single crop of linseed or melons. The higher levels of the alluvial region are usually the most productive, as the inundations deposit their fine silt and vegetable mould at a distance from the central channels, while nearer the main stream, sand and shingle render cultivation comparatively fruitless. The harvests are those common to the rest of Upper India. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rain in June, and gathered in October or November; early rice may even be harvested at the end of August, but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. The other autumn staples are *joár*, *bájrá*, *moth*, and inferior food-grains. The spring crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April; they consist of wheat, barley, oats, and pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops; and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. Owing to the abundant rainfall, and the regularity of the Christmas showers, combined with the nearness of water to the surface, irrigation is not so necessary as in the Doáb. Moreover, as rents are often paid in kind by fixed proportions, it is asserted that the cultivators will not take the trouble to irrigate, when they know that they must share the resulting profit with their landlord. Out of 761,734 acres of cultivated land in the District in 1881, 61,414 were cultivated by the owners; 513,392 acres were held by tenants with rights of occupancy; and 186,928 acres by tenants-at-will.

Money rents are usual in all the southern *parganás*, ranging from 5s. $5\frac{7}{8}$d. to 11s. $3\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre, according to situation; but towards the north, rents are paid in kind. The total number of adult male agriculturists in 1881 was returned at 261,320, cultivating an average of 2·91 acres each. The total population, however, wholly dependent on the soil numbered 715,785, or 69·43 per cent. of the District population. Of the total District area of 1614 square miles, 1523 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 1127 are actually under cultivation, and 381 cultivable, the remainder being uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including cesses and rates levied on the land, £159,521, or an average of 4s. $4\frac{3}{8}$d. per cultivated acre; total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £281,933, or an average of 7s. $4\frac{7}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. The following are the ordinary rates of wages:—Coolies and unskilled

labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to $3\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem; agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women receive about one-fifth less than men, while children earn from one-third to one-half the wages of adults. Prices have steadily increased since the beginning of the century. In 1876, the ordinary food-grains sold as follows:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; best rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt.; *joár*, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájrá*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt. In 1881–82, the average prices of food-grains were for wheat $18\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 1d. per cwt.; best rice, $7\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* per rupee, or 15s. per cwt.; common rice, $15\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 3d. per cwt.; *joár*, $23\frac{3}{4}$ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. $8\frac{1}{2}$d. per cwt.; and *bájrá*, $22\frac{1}{5}$ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Nothing is known of the scarcities which occurred in Rohilkhand during the last century, though the Muhammadan historians occasionally mention that after long-continued struggles between the Katheriyas and the Musalmáns, or protracted wars of the Afgháns against the Imperial troops, much land had fallen out of cultivation, and little grain was left in the country. The great famine of 1783 found Bareilly under the rule of the Wazírs of Oudh, who did nothing to mitigate its severity, but the distress never seriously affected Rohilkhand. In the famine year of 1803, Bareilly had but recently passed under the British Government. Very little rain fell during the autumn, and all the crops failed; disturbances arose, and the landlords, unable to pay their share of the revenue, absconded in numbers. The distress reached its height in April, when the people fed their starving cattle on the dried-up stalks of the spring crops. In 1837–38, the year of the terrible famine in the Doáb, Rohilkhand suffered somewhat for lack of rain; but opportune showers in February 1838 saved a large proportion of the *rabí* harvest. The scarcity of 1860–61 was severely felt throughout Rohilkhand, and this District did not escape unhurt. The road from Bareilly to Budáun was constructed as a relief work. Crowds of starving immigrants from the westward poured into the District, aggravating the local distress, which would not otherwise have reached a conspicuous height. Bareilly was only slightly affected by the dearth of 1868–69. As a whole, owing to the abundant natural water supply of the sub-Himálayan tract, the extremity of famine need not be apprehended so seriously for this District as for many others in its neighbourhood.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The leading marts in the District are those of Bareilly and Aonla; but as many as 173 village *bázárs* are scattered through the country *parganás*. They are usually held twice a week, and serve to carry off the cotton and grain of the surrounding country, which is bought up by Banjáras for the markets of Bareilly, Pilibhít, Rámpur, and Chandausí. The villagers obtain their supplies

of cloth, metal pots, and pedlar's wares at the same time. Landlords levy a small tax from each shopkeeper, pedlar, or grain seller at these *bázárs*. Bareilly has no manufactures of more than local importance, and very little external trade. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway passes through the south-western portion of the District for a distance of 47·75 miles, with stations at Fatehganj, Farídpur, Bareilly, Basháratganj, and Aonla. Good bridged and metalled roads connect Bareilly with Fatehgarh, Moradábád, Budáun, and Pilibhít. A metalled road also runs to the foot of the hills for Naini Tál. The northern part of the District is badly supplied with communications, owing to the scarcity of road metal, and the number of Himálayan torrents which cut their way through the soft soil. Total length of roads, 525 miles.

Administration.—On the cession of Rohilkhand to the British in 1801, the Province was divided into two Districts—Bareilly and Moradábád. In 1813, Sháhjahánpur was made a distinct District; and in 1821 Budáun was similarly separated. In 1817, Bijnor was divided from Moradábád, and in 1858 the Tarái from Bareilly. Subsequently, in 1880–81, the area of Bareilly was further reduced by the separation from it of the new District of Pilibhít. In this way the seven Districts now constituting the Rohilkhand Division were formed. In 1861, the Nawáb of Rámpur received a grant of 133 villages as a reward for his services during the Mutiny. The District, as at present constituted, is administered by a magistrate-collector, 2 joint or assistant-magistrates, and 2 deputy-magistrates, besides the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary establishments. Total District revenue, 1881–82, £134,062, equal to an average of 2s. 7d. per head on a population of 1,030,936.

In 1881, the regular police force amounted to 1006 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £11,364. These figures show one policeman to every 1·60 square miles of area and every 1024 of the population; the cost of maintenance was at the rate of £6, 1s. per square mile, or 2½d. per head of the population. Bareilly contains three places of confinement, the Central and the District jails, and a lock-up. The former had in 1881 a daily average of 1956 prisoners. Criminals from all Districts in the Rohilkhand Division undergo confinement in this prison. The District jail contained in the same year a daily average of 896 prisoners, of whom 787 were males and 109 females. The average daily prison population in the Sub-divisional lock-up numbered 41. There are 21 post-offices in the District, and the telegraph is in operation along the line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. In 1881, the educational machinery consisted of 121 schools under Government inspection, with an aggregate roll of 4620 pupils, giving an average area of 13·34 square miles

for each school, and 4·5 scholars per thousand of the population. Female education is carried on by 7 schools, one of which is of a high class. For fiscal and administrative purposes, Bareilly is divided into 6 *tahsíls* and 14 *parganás*, with 3832 separate estates. The District contains only one municipality, that of Bareilly.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is largely influenced by its proximity to the hills, Bareilly city and all the northern *parganás* lying within the limits of the heavier storms. The rainy season begins a little earlier, and ends a little later, than elsewhere to the south, and the cold weather lasts longer. The atmosphere is damp, the heat moderate, and the hot winds not excessive. The average annual mean temperature at Bareilly town for the 13 years ending 1880 was 74·9, reaching a maximum of 89·5 in June, and a minimum of 56·9 in January. The average annual rainfall for the 32 years ending 1881 amounted to 40·97 inches; the maximum during this period was 62·8 inches, in 1867, and the minimum 19·7 inches, in 1860. In 1881, the rainfall at Bareilly was 2·62 inches below the average. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1880 was 26,536, or 25·74 per thousand of the population; the average death-rate for the previous 6 years was returned as 20·94 per thousand. The District contains 4 dispensaries—2 in the city of Bareilly, and 1 each at Aonla and Baheri. In 1881 they afforded relief to a total of 59,780 patients. [For further information regarding Bareilly, see the Settlement Report of the District (1874), by S. M. Moens, Esq., C.S.; the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, by H. C. Conybeare, Esq., C.S., and E. T. Atkinson, Esq., C.S., vol. v. pp. 499–675 (Allahábád, 1879); the *North-Western Provinces Census Report* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* for 1880 to 1882.]

Bareilly (*Bareli*).—City in Bareilly District, North-Western Provinces, and administrative head-quarters of the District and also of the Rohilkhand Division. Lat. 28° 22′ 9″ N., long. 29° 26′ 38″ E. Population in 1881, 103,160, namely, 56,550 Hindus, 45,877 Muhammadans, 720 Christians, and 13 'others.' Bareilly is the most populous city in Rohilkhand, and fifth in the North-Western Provinces. It stands at an elevation of 550 feet above sea-level, on the Rámgangá river, 96 miles above its confluence with the Ganges; distant from Calcutta 788 miles north-west, and from Delhi 152 miles east. Good metalled roads connect the city with all the neighbouring centres of trade and population; and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway affords access from Lucknow and Bengal on the east, and from the Doáb on the west. The city, civil station, and cantonments lie on an open plain without walls or fortifications, intersected by a few ravines and patches of broken ground. The cantonments contain lines for a battery of artillery and regiments of European and native infantry, besides native

cavalry. Bareilly forms the head-quarters of the Rohilkhand Military District. The population of the cantonments as distinguished from the town population, consists of 10,257, namely, 6339 Hindus, 2272 Muhammadans, 1430 Christians, and 216 'others.' The ordinary military force includes a regiment each of European and Native infantry, a battery of Royal Artillery, and a regiment of Native cavalry, the whole under the command of a Brigadier-General.

The place was founded, according to tradition, about the year 1537, by Bas Deo and Barel Deo, from the latter of whom it derives its name. The Katheriyas of Rohilkhand (*see* BAREILLY DISTRICT) had long been carrying on a desultory warfare with the Musalmán governors of Sambhal and Aonla; and the Mughal Imperialists found it necessary to establish a strong outpost to the east of their previous frontier. Troops were thus posted at Bareilly; and round their encampment a city soon sprang up, whose irregular outline and mean architecture still betrays its hasty and temporary origin. The town long remained a mere military station, the last stronghold of the Mughals on their extreme north-eastern frontier. In 1657, Rájá Makrand Rái, the Hindu governor, founded the new city of Bareilly, cut down the forest to the west of the old town, and expelled all the Katheriyas from its precincts. From 1660 to 1707, the regular succession of Imperial governors at Bareilly continued without a break; but in the last-named year, on the death of the Emperor Aurangzeb, the Hindus threw off the Musalmán yoke, and began a series of internecine quarrels with their own co-religionists.

Their dissensions gave an opportunity for the rise of Ali Muhammad Khán, chief of the Rohillá Patháns, whose history has been fully related in the article on BAREILLY DISTRICT. For half a century Bareilly remained the capital of the Rohillá race, until the conquest of the country by the British forces on behalf of the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh. From the Wazírs it passed to the British in 1801, and became at once the head-quarters of a Division and District. Religious disturbances between the Muhammadan and Hindu population arose in 1816, 1837, and 1842, but our rule was never seriously threatened until the Mutiny of 1857. During that great struggle, Bareilly was the centre of disaffection for the whole of Rohilkhand. The troops rebelled on the 31st of May, and Khán Bahádur Khán, a descendant of the Rohillá chieftains, was proclaimed governor. Most of the Europeans escaped to Naini Tál. After the fall of Lucknow, the Nawáb of Fatehgarh, the Náná Sáhib, Firoz Sháh, and other leading rebels, took refuge in Bareilly. On the 5th of May 1858, the English army arrived before the town, and two days later the rebels fled into Oudh, and the English occupied Bareilly. In 1871, the peace of the town was again disturbed by riots, on the occasion of the

synchronous occurrence of the Hindu festival of the *Rámnámí* with the Muhammadan *Muharram*. Precautions were taken to prevent an outbreak, but the fanatical Muhammadan populace attacked the Hindu religious procession, and set to work plundering the city. The riot was not quelled until several persons were killed and 158 reported wounded.

The city has little architectural pretension, the chief buildings being of modern date. The ruins of the ancient fortress, founded by Barel Deo, may still be seen in the old town. A modern fort of considerable strength overlooks the artillery barracks in the cantonments, and supplies a place of refuge and defence for the station. A third and much older fortification owes its origin to Rájá Makrand Rái. The chief mosques are the Mírzá Masjid, built by Mírzá Ain-ul-Mulk about the year 1600, and the Jamá Masjid, erected by the Hindu Makrand Rái, in 1657. The Nawáb of Rámpur has a palace near the city, which he occupies on his visit to Bareilly, and lends at other times to Europeans of high official position. The other buildings include a church, two jails, lunatic asylum, District offices, and railway station. Most of the private houses are built of mud, only 6800 out of 22,800 being of masonry. Some of the new *bázárs*, particularly Inglisganj, are clean and well built. Cotton, grain, and sugar form the chief commercial staples; but Bareilly does not rank in the first class of mercantile importance. The manufactures of furniture and upholstery are better and cheaper than elsewhere in Northern India. Bareilly has a Government college, with a Principal and staff of professors, besides high-class schools. Municipal income in 1880–81, £9994, of which £9179 was derived from octroi.

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Bárel or **Barail.**—Hill range in North Cachar, Assam, connecting the Khásí Hills system with Manipur and the Nágá Hills. It forms the boundary between North and South Cachar, and lies between 25° and 25° 32′ N. lat., and between 93° 9′ and 93° 46′ E. long. The height varies from 2500 to 6000 feet. Many spurs are thrown out southwards, between which torrents flow towards the Bárak. The rocky strata beneath are covered with vegetable mould, and clothed with dense forest.

Barelá. — Forest in Mandlá District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 58′ 45″ and 23° 2′ N. lat., and between 80° 12′ 30″ and 80° 16′ 30″ E. long.; area about 10 square miles. Broken up by numerous ravines, but full of young teak.

Barelá.—Ancient town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces, 10 miles south-east of Jabalpur. Lat. 23° 6′ N., long. 80° 5′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2733, namely, Hindus, 2268; Kabírpanthís, 157; Muhammadans, 151; Jains, 66; aboriginal tribes, 91. Said to have been founded 1100 years ago by a Gond Rájá. Until

1857, the town was noted for the manufacture of gun-barrels. The present Thákurs of Barelá obtained 14 villages in *táluk* Pendwár, for good service, from Rájá Seoráj Sáh of Garhá Mandla.

Bareli. — District and town, North-Western Provinces. — *See* BAREILLY.

Barendá (or *Broang*).—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the southernmost range of the Himálayas. Lat. 31° 23′ N., long. 78° 12′ E. Reached by proceeding up the Pabar river nearly to its source. Elevation above sea-level, 15,095 feet.

Bareng.—Valley and *parganá* in Kashmír State.—*See* BHARENG.

Barengi.—River of Kashmír State.—*See* BHARENGI.

Baretha.—Town in Faizábád District, Oudh, on the banks of the Gogra (Ghágra) river, on the road from Faizábád to Ajodhya. Said to have been founded by Ráma's washerman, Baretha. Population (1881) 4133, namely, Hindus, 3885, of whom three-fifths are Vishnuvites; Muhammadans, 248; 997 houses. Many Vishnuvite temples.

Bargá.—Hill pass in the north of Bashahr State, Punjab, leading across the Himálayas. Lat. 31° 16′ N., long. 78° 19′ E. It is the lowest of three passes which occur at this point within the space of little more than a mile, and has probably not a greater elevation than 15,000 feet above the sea.

Bargarh.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area of Government land, 765 square miles, of which 739 square miles are assessed for land revenue. Total cultivated area, 257 square miles; cultivable, 23 square miles; uncultivable waste, 459 square miles. Population (1881) 194,116, of whom 70,136 are returned as adult agriculturists, cultivating an average of 3 acres each. Total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £6236, or an average of 9⅛d. per cultivated acre. The *tahsíl* also comprises 10 large *zamíndári* or private estates, comprising an area of 1998 square miles. The figures given above, however, refer only to the Government area of 765 square miles. The *tahsíl* contains 2 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 3 police stations (*thánás*) and 10 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 118 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 669. The *tahsíl* is highly cultivated, except in the north-west corner, where the country becomes hilly. The Bárá Pahár hills, covered with thick forest, run from west to north for a distance of about 26 miles, with a breadth of about 6 miles. These hills formed a rebel stronghold during the Mutiny of 1857–58. The Gond fort of Debrigarh, situated on the highest peak of the range, is a curious old structure, built of massive blocks of granite piled one on the top of the other. The principal river is the Jira, a tributary of the Mahánadí. The total population of the entire tract in 1881 numbered

396,138, composed chiefly of Kultás, an industrious agricultural class who own most of the soil; Gaurs or herdsmen; Ladras or carriers; and aboriginal Gonds. Chief crops—rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, and pulses. Cotton is also grown to a slight extent. Nine villages contain upwards of 1000 inhabitants. Manufacture of brass work at the village of Kadhobáhál. Boys' schools are located in 13 villages, with an average attendance of 611 pupils; girls' schools at Bargarh. Three main lines of road intersect the *tahsíl*.

Bargarh.—Town in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Bargarh *tahsíl*, situated on the Ráipur road, 26 miles west of Sambalpur town, in lat. 21° 21′ 15″ N., long. 83° 43′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 1609, chiefly agriculturists. Besides the Sub-divisional Court-house, the village contains a charitable dispensary, police station with the head-quarters of an inspector, boys' and girls' schools, and post-office with money order and savings bank. Weekly market held on Fridays attended by inhabitants from most of the neighbouring villages. Native cloths and food-grains are the chief articles sold.

Bárh.—Sub-division of Patná District, Bengal, lying between 25° 10′ and 25° 34′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 13′ and 86° 6′ 15″ E. long.; area, 526 square miles, with 1121 villages, and 54,459 occupied houses; population (1881) 376,074, namely, 345,520 Hindus (or 91·9 per cent. of the population), 30,463 Muhammadans, 73 Christians, and 18 'others'; average density of the population, 715 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·13; houses per square mile, 118; persons per village, 335—per house, 6·9. The Sub-division comprises the three *thánás* (police circles) of Fatwá, Bárh, and Mukáma. In 1881–82 it contained one magisterial court, a general police force of 183 men, and a village watch of 687 men. The total separate cost of Sub-divisional administration in that year was returned at £1274. The greater part of the cultivated area is under food-grains, other staples being grown only to a small extent.

Bárh.—Town in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 29′ 10″ N., long. 85° 45′ 12″ E. Population (1881) 14,689, namely, 11,874 Hindus, 2807 Muhammadans, and 8 Christians. Situated on the Ganges, with a station on the East Indian Railway, 299 miles from Calcutta, Bárh carries on a considerable trade in country produce. Municipal income in 1881, £554; expenditure, £725.

Bárhá.—Large agricultural village in Gadarwárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2691, namely, Hindus, 2306; Kabírpanthís, 2; Muhammadans, 164; Jains, 40; aboriginal tribes, 179. The village was formerly held, apparently in *jágír*, by the notorious Pindári chief, Chitú. Sugar-cane is cultivated, and cotton-weaving is carried on to some extent. Bárhá

commands most of the export trade in forest produce and dyes from the Chhindhwára *jágírdári* estates. Police station; post-office; and boys' and girls' schools.

Barhaj.—Town in Deoria *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the river Rápti, at the junction of several cross roads, 41 miles south-east of Gorakhpur town. Lat. 26° 16′ 40″ N., long. 83° 46′ 5″ E. A rising and prosperous trading town, and the chief trading mart in the District. The population, which in 1872 was returned at 4970, had increased in 1881 to 11,715, namely, 9944 Hindus and 1771 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 95 acres. The town has no feature of interest apart from its commercial importance. The streets are crooked and irregular, and the houses for the most part squalid. The river bank is covered with immense piles of wood—part for exportation, part for boat-building, which is an active trade, and part for feeding the furnaces of numerous sugar factories. Sugar refining is carried on to a great extent. The town is also an important depôt for the down country distribution of grain and oil-seeds. The main imports comprise iron, cloth, and salt. Bi-weekly market. Large religious trading fair in October.

Barhalganj.—Town in Bánsgáon *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, on the north bank of the Gogra (Ghagrá) river, 36 miles south-south-east of Gorakhpur town. Lat. 26° 17′ N., long. 83° 33′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 5779, namely, 4241 Hindus and 1538 Muhammadans. The town, which covers an area of 90 acres, is surrounded by groves, and consists of a street of masonry shops lining the sides of the Azamgarh road, and with a neatly kept metalled market-place. Large exports of grain to the Ganges ports. Great fair, known as Rámlíla, held in October, attracts some 2000 persons. Government charitable dispensary, police station, school, travellers' rest-house, and Imperial post-office. A small municipal revenue is raised under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act (xx. of 1856).

Barhampur.—*See* BERHAMPORE.

Barhí (*Burhee*).—Village on the Grand Trunk Road in Hazáribágh District, Bengal, with post-office, dispensary, and telegraph office. Communication by telephone with Hazáribágh town.

Barhi.—Town in Murwárá *tahsíl*, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2039, namely, Hindus, 1952; Kabírpanthí, 1; Muhammadans, 77; and Jains, 9.

Bári.—Formerly a *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sítápur District, Oudh, since removed to Sidhauli, *q.v.*

Bári.—*Parganá* in Sidhauli *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Pírnagar, on the east by Mahmudábád, on the south by Manwán *parganás*, and on the west by Sítápur District (the Saráyan river marking the boundary line). The early inhabitants are said to

have been Kachheras and Ahírs, who held the country till the fourteenth century, when they were dispossessed by Pratáp Singh, a convert to Islám, to whom a *farmán* was granted by the Emperor Tughlak. Pratáp Singh had three sons prior to his conversion, and one afterwards by his Muhammadan wife. The descendants of the former are still in possession of some of their ancestors' villages; but the great bulk of his estate went to his Musalmán son, whose descendants became the hereditary *chaudharis* of the *parganá*, and the present representative of the family is still recognised by that title. A considerable portion of the *parganá* is now held by Bais Kshattriyas, who settled here about 250 years ago. The soil is fertile, and facilities exist for irrigation. Area, 125 square miles, of which 76¾ are cultivated. The incidence of the Government land revenue is at the rate of 3s. 9⅝d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 11¾d. per acre of cultivable area, and 2s. 4¼d. per acre of total area. Population (1881) 54,030, namely, 28,525 males and 25,505 females. Number of villages, 129.

Bári.—Town in Sidhauli *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; 23 miles south of Sítápur town, and 29 miles north of Lucknow. Said to have been founded by Mubárak, son of the Emperor Humáyún, who, having come to hunt in the Oudh jungles, built a shooting-box and country house (*bárí*) here, round which a town sprung up. Population (1881) 3102, residing in 565 mud houses. Formerly the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, which have been removed to Sidhauli. No trade or manufactures.

Bári.—Village in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, on left bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Manufacture of woollen cloth. Lat. 30° 55′ N., long. 78° 26′ E.

Bári.—Town in Dholpur State, Rájputána; chief place of a small District of the same name, situated among the hills in the south-west of the territory. Lat. 26° 38′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.; distance from Dholpur, 18 miles west—from Agra, 44 miles south-west. Population (1881) 11,547.

Bária.—Tributary State in Rewá Kántha, in the Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 21′ and 22° 58′ N. lat., and between 73° 41′ and 74° 18′ E. long.; bounded east and west by the British District of the Panch Mahals, north by the States of Sanjeli and Sunth, and south by the State of Chotá Udepur. Extreme length north to south, 39 miles. Estimated area, 813 square miles; population (1881) 66,822, or 82·2 per square mile; gross revenue, £18,237. The country is hilly in the south and east, but flat in the west, and is divided into 7 sub-divisions, Randhíkpur, Dudhia, Umária, Haveli, Kákadkhila, Ságtála, and Rajgad. Much of it is covered with forest. The climate is damp and unhealthy, fever being the prevailing

disease. The principal products are cereals, pulses, oil-seeds, and timber. The chiefs of Bária are Chauhán Rájputs, who are said to have been driven south by the advance of the Musalmáns about the year 1244, and to have taken possession of the city and fort of Chámpáner. Here they ruled till defeated by Muhammad Begára in 1484, and forced to retire to the wilder parts of their dominions. Of two branches of the family, one founded the house of Chotá Udepur, and the other the house of Bária. The connection of this State with the British dates from 1803, when, in consequence of the help given by the chief to the British army in their operations against Sindhiá, the Government subsidized a detachment of Bária Bhíls, at a monthly cost of £180. The title of the head of the State is Maháráwal of Deogarh Bária.

The State pays a tribute of £933 to the British Government, and maintains a military force of 259 men. There is no *sanad* authorizing adoption; the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The ruler is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. For the nine years ending 1876, Bária was under the direct control of a British officer, during the minority of the present ruler. Of the public works constructed under British management, the chief are the portion (21 miles in length) of the high road between Málwa and Guzerát, lying within the limits of the Bária State, and a branch 7 miles long connecting the town of Bária with the main road. A new road from the *táluk* of Lagtatta, chiefly inhabited by Naikra Bhíls, has been made to the capital of the State in order to open up communication with these tribes. A dispensary is supported by the State at a yearly cost of £308, and there are 15 schools with an average attendance of 680 pupils. Transit dues are levied in this State.

Bária.—Chief town of the State of Bária, in Guzerát; in political connection with the Rewá Kántha Agency of the Bombay Presidency; 50 miles north-east of Baroda. Lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 73° 56′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 3110.

Bári Doáb.—A tract of country in the Punjab, forming the irregular wedge of land between the Rávi (with the Trimáb) on the north-west and the Beas (Biás) (with the Sutlej) on the south-east. It lies between 29° 18′ and 32° 14′ N. lat., and between 71° 4′ and 75° 25′ E. long.; comprising the Districts of GURDASPUR and AMRITSAR, with parts of LAHORE, MONTGOMERY and MULTAN, each of which see separately. Length, 370 miles; average breadth, 45 miles. Traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and watered in its north-eastern portion by the Bári Doáb Canal. The upper tract, irrigated by the canal, is fertile and populous; but towards the south the country becomes barren and

canal waters portions of Gurdáspur, Amritsar, and Lahore Districts, and has been largely instrumental in the substitution of cotton, sugar-cane, and superior cereals for the common food-stuffs which were formerly almost the only crops grown on this thirsty tract. It has also induced a steady improvement in methods of agriculture, the uncertainty of the water supply in previous years having been the main drawback to the industrious peasantry; while the danger of famine in the three irrigated Districts may now be considered as far less imminent than formerly.

Bárigura.—Town of Rewah Native State in Baghelkhand, Central India. Population (1881) 6625.

Barísál. — The head-quarters Sub-division of Bákarganj District, Bengal, lying between 22° 28′ and 22° 40′ N. lat., and between 90° 13′ 45″ and 90° 37′ 45″ E. long.; area, 1111 square miles; number of villages and towns, 1982; number of occupied houses, 100,034; population (1881) 814,595, namely, 499,487 Muhammadans (or 61·32 per cent. of the population), 311,485 Hindus, 3491 Christians, 59 Buddhists, and 73 'others;' number of males, 410,475, females, 404,120; average density of population, 733 per square mile; houses per square mile, 94; persons per occupied house, 8. The Sub-division was established in 1801; it comprises the 6 *thánás* (police circles) of Barisál, Jhálakáti, Nalchití, Bákarhanj, Mehndíganj, and Gaurnadi. In 1882, there were 7 magisterial and revenue courts, and the total police force, including village watchmen, numbered 2292.

Barísál.—Town and civil station of Bákarganj District, Bengal, on the west bank of the Barisál river. Lat. 22° 41′ 40″ N., long. 90° 24′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 13,186, namely, 6828 Muhammadans, 6041 Hindus, and 317 'others.' Area of town site, 3756 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £1206; expenditure, £1217. The head-quarters of the District, formerly at Bákarganj, were transferred to Barisál in 1801.

Báriya.—State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BARIA.

Barkal Hills.—Range in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal; principal peak, Barkal Tang (lat. 22° 45′ N., long. 92° 22′ E.), 1879 feet in height. The hills are covered with dense jungle; the ascents are very steep, and can only be made along known zig-zag paths. Wild elephants, however, reach the summits; and if proper paths were cut through the jungle, laden animals could doubtless do the same.

Barkal Rapids.—A succession of low falls and long rocky slopes, about a mile in length, forming part of the course of the Karnaphuli river, in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. Lat. 23° 43′ N., long. 92° 26′ E. The falls are 20 miles above Kásálang, a place distant about 100 miles from the mouth of the Karnaphuli. They greatly impede navigation, as traders have to disembark their goods, drag their

boats with great labour over the rapids, and re-load above the falls This is an expensive operation, and affects the prices of all imported articles above the falls to the extent of nearly a hundred per cent.

Barkalúr (*Bracalor* of Faria-y-Souza; *Colloor* of the Trigonometrical Survey Map; *Barsalor* of Horsburgh).—A ruined town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 50′ N., long. 74° 53′ E. 'Once,' according to Faria-y-Souza (*Annals*, 1581–1584), 'one of the most noted places of trade in India, in the form of a commonwealth, but much decayed since the Portuguese built a fort there.' Distant (direct) from Mangalore, 68 miles north; from Bombay, 380 miles south-east; from Bangalore, 195 miles north-west; from Madras, 370 miles west.—*See* BAIRUR.

Barkhera (*Bará*, or *Mota*).—Petty Estate or guaranteed Thákurate in the Bhíl (Bheel) Agency of Central India. The chief, or Bhúmia, has relations both with Dhár and with Sindhia. He holds from Dhár 3 villages in Dharmpuri, subject to a payment of £86, 12s.; from Sindhia he holds certain villages in the Sagor *parganá*, on which he pays £165; and also 5 villages in Dekthán, on which he pays £140.

Barkhera (*Chhotá*, or *Sorpur*).—Petty Estate or guaranteed Thákurate in the Bhíl (Bheel) Agency of Central India. The chief, or Bhúmia, pays to the Dhár State £15 on 4 villages; and is responsible for police duties in 15 villages jointly with the Bhúmia of Bará Barkhera.

Barkop.—Village and group of hills 9 miles north of Godda, Santál Parganás, Bengal. They are four in number, nearly in line with one another; the two central peaks being conical, while the outside ones slope down to the plain in long irregular ridges. The village is at the foot of the hills, and is the seat of the Rájás of Barkop.

Barkúr.—Former Sub-division of Kánara, Madras Presidency, comprising a portion of the western declivity of the Gháts; very hilly, and traversed by numerous mountain streams. This tract, at a remote period of history, formed part of the Kadamba realm, overthrown, as tradition relates, in the 2nd century A.D. It subsequently became subject to Vijayánagar, but after the defeat of that power at Tálikot (1565), passed into the hands of the Bednúr Rájá. In 1763, Haidar Ali absorbed Bednúr, and after the death of his son, Tipú Sultán, the country was incorporated in the British dominions.

Barkúr (*Hangarkatta*).—Village and port in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 28′ 30″ N., long. 74° 47′ 50″ E. Exports (1880–81), £47,870; imports, £17,896. The present town marks the site of a very ancient city, once the largest in Kánara, and even in the 16th century of considerable importance. As the stronghold of the Vijayanagar Rájás, who obtained possession of it in 1335, the ruined city possesses much interest for the antiquary. Traces of the great fort built by Hari Har Rájá, about 1370, still exist, as also the tanks

and part of the walls of an old palace. Ruins of Buddhist temples abound, and inscriptions testify that in the 14th century Baikúr was the seat of the viceregal government of the Rái of Vijayanagar. Among the sculptures, one representing a procession of armed men, bearing a striking resemblance in equipments and general appearance to the Greek soldiery, and another of a centaur, deserve special mark. Tradition asserts that it was from here that the Alya Santana law of inheritance was promulgated. The present town possesses some trade in brass and copper utensils.—*See* HANGARKATTA.

Bármuárá.—Tributary State in Máhi Kántha, Guzerát Province, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 4065. Revenue, £150; expenditure, £180. Tribute, £90, payable to Baroda.

Bármúl Pass. — Mountain gorge in Daspallá State, Orissa, near Goáldeo Peak. Lat. 20° 30′ N., long. 84° 50′ E. The pass is overhung with crags and peaks of wild beauty, and the Mahánadí river sweeps through it, forming the northern boundary of the State. The hills on either side are magnificently wooded, and the gorge is at one part so narrow that the river rises 70 feet in time of flood. During the Maráthá war of 1803, the Barmúl Pass was forced by a British force under Major Forbes. It was here that the Maráthás made their last stand; but on the 2nd of November 1803 they were completely defeated, and with difficulty escaped over the hills.

Barnadí.—River in Assam, flowing south from the mountains of Bhután into the Brahmaputra, in Nowgong District. Lat. at point of junction 26° 13′ N., long. 91° 48′ E. For the most part it forms the boundary between Kámrúp District on the west and Darrang District on the east; but its channel is liable to constant changes, which have left many old beds. It is navigable by large country boats in the rainy season, and by canoes during the rest of the year.

Bárnagar.—Town in Gwalior territory, Central India. Population (1881) 7908.

Baroda (*Wadodrá*).—Non-tributary State, in direct political relation with the Government of India; including all the territories of his Highness the Gáekwár, in different parts of the Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. These territories (lying between 21° 51′ and 22° 49′ N. lat., and between 72° 53′ and 73° 55′ E. long.) have, according to the Census of 1881, a total area of 8570 square miles, and a population of 2,185,005, or 255 to the square mile. They are divided into four administrative Divisions, viz. (1) the Kádi or northern Division, comprising the Districts of Pattan, Kádi, Víjapur, Vísnagar, Dehgáon, Kalol, Vadaoli, Sidhpur, Kherálu, and Mesána; (2) the central or Baroda Division, comprising the Districts round Baroda itself, viz. Baroda, Choranda, Jarod, Petlad, Padra, Dabhoi, Sinoe, and Sankheda; (3) the southern, or the Navsári Division, comprising the Districts of Navsári,

Gandevi, Palsána, Kámrij, Veláchha, Moha, Vyaro, and Tongarh; (4) the Amreli Division, comprising the Districts of Amreli, Okhámandal, Korinár, Dhári, and Dámnagar. With the exception of the Amreli Division, which is in Káthiáwár, the others are much intermixed with British territory, and also with the lands belonging to minor chiefs, tributary to the Gáekwár, but under the political supervision of the British Government.

Physical Aspects.—The northern Districts in Guzerát form a wide plain, drained by the rivers Narbadá (Nerbudda), Tápti, Mahi, and several smaller streams. The surface consists chiefly of *regar*, or black cotton soil, and a light-coloured soil locally known as *gorár̥u*. The natural fertility of the black cotton soil is well known. The *gorár̥u* soil is also fertile when manured and irrigated; in dry weather, where subject to much traffic, as in roads, it forms deep, heavy, and almost impalpable sand, which again after rain becomes tolerably compact. The roads are generally lined by hedges of cactus, irregularly planted. Deserted towns, ruined temples, and tanks now partly filled with mud, bear testimony to the former prosperity of the country. Okhámandal, in the extreme north-west of the peninsula of Káthiáwár, surrounded on three sides by the sea or the Gulf of Cutch, partakes of the general appearance of the Province of Cutch (Kachchh), being everywhere sandy and covered with loose stones. The Amreli Mahals resemble the rest of Káthiáwár. The country is open, the soil good, and well watered with perennial streams. The central Division, surrounding the city of Baroda, is perfectly flat and covered with trees, the soil fertile and highly cultivated, yielding crops of the most highly prized cotton. The fourth or southern Division, including the lands that intermix with the British District of Surat, is also fertile and well cultivated, especially in the neighbourhood of the town of Navsári.

The principal rivers flowing through the territory are the Saraswatí, Sábarmatí, Mahi, Narbadá (Nerbudda), Purna, Dhutarwád, Shetrunji, Meswá, Wátrak, Shetruti, Dhádhar, Kim, and Ambika. The lesser streams are the Banás, Rupan, Lun, Jári, Vishwámitri, Suryá, Or, Varná, Ambá, Karad, Jambua, and Tembhi. Water is obtained chiefly from wells, but in almost all parts of the territory there are fine reservoirs. The rivers have worn their courses deep below the level of the rich alluvial deposit, and, except on occasions of flood, no longer serve to fertilize the soil.

Apart from the Rájpipla Hills, which fringe the southern limit of the central Division, there is no range of mountains in the whole territory.

Population.—The Census of 1881 gives a total population of 2,185,005 persons (1,139,512 males, and 1,045,493 females), or 255 to the square mile. Of these, 1,954,390, or 89·45 per cent., are returned as Hindus;

174,980, or 8 per cent., as Musalmáns; 46,718 as Jains; 771 Christians; 8118 Pársís; and 28 'others.' The percentage of males to the total population is 52·15. Of the 1,954,390 Hindus, 138,506 are Bráhmans, and 79,853 Rájputs. Baniyás or traders number 57,027. The agricultural or pastoral castes number 482,928, the most numerous being the Kanbís (391,984); fishing and boating castes number 14,835; artisans, 160,217; domestic servants, 32,671; labouring and wandering castes, 69,192; mendicant castes, 20,551; and 'depressed' castes, 191,461, including 110,040 Dhers. Of the 174,980 Musalmáns, 155,653 are Sunnís and 19,327 Shiás. The agricultural population of the State, as in other parts of Guzerát, is mainly composed of Bráhmans of the Bháthelá clan, Kanbís, Rájputs, and Kolís. There are also Borah cultivators in the north and south, and Bhíls in the wilder tracts towards the south. In the highly-cultivated parts, the Kanbís predominate. The mercantile community is said to be in a prosperous condition, and many families, especially those who in former times acted as State bankers, are possessed of great wealth. In recent years a large number of Bráhmans, Maráthás, and other natives of the Deccan and Konkan have permanently settled in Baroda territory. In the northern and eastern Districts the chief cultivators are Kolís and Rájputs in poor circumstances. With these are interspersed Bháts, Chárans, and religious mendicants of different descriptions, some of whom, such as the Gosáins, who inhabit monasteries called *maths*, are often the wealthiest and most influential land-owners in the country.

Excluding Bombay and Surat, the number of Pársís is nowhere greater than in the Baroda territory. With the exception of about 175 residing in Baroda city and at other places, the Pársí population is collected at Navsári, about 15 miles from Surat, where they are said to have first settled with their sacred fire about 450 years ago. The two hill forts of Songarh and Sáler are worthy of notice. Songarh, 43 miles east of Surat and a few miles south of the Tápti, commands a path much favoured by the bands which from time to time invaded the plain of Guzerát from the higher lands of Khándesh, and was for many years the head-quarters of the Gáekwár's power. Sáler is at the south-east corner of the Baroda territory. These two, which both lie in Navsári District, and also the fort of Mulher, are still garrisoned with militia. Rúpgarh, a hill fort 10 miles south of Songarh, is not garrisoned, but Wájpur on the Tápti river, once a strong place, has a garrison. Among other places of interest in the State may be mentioned—Vohorá Kathor, famous for the manufacture of the deep-red dye extracted from the roots of the *moringa* tree; Sojitrá, celebrated for its knives; Dabhoi, where turbans and *sáris* are woven in large quantities; Pattan, well known for its knives, nut-crackers, and specially for its pottery, which is

remarkable for lightness and strength, as well as for the taste with which it is coloured.

History.—The name by which the rulers of the Baroda State are generally known is that of Gáekwár; the family title is Sena Khás Khel Shamsher Bahádur, and the title of Farzand-i-Khás, Daulat-i-Englishia, was conferred on the chief at the Delhi Darbar on 1st January 1877. The Gáekwár of Baroda is entitled to a salute of 21 guns. The family first rose out of obscurity in 1720–21, when, at the battle of Bálápur, Damájí Gáekwár so distinguished himself that Khándi Ráo Dhabarái, who held the rank of Senapatí or commander-in-chief of the Maráthá army, strongly recommended him to Rájá Shahú of Satára, and procured his appointment as second in command, with the title of Shamsher Bahádur. Damájí dying soon after, was succeeded in this office by his nephew Pilájí Ráo Gáekwár, who continued to be the lieutenant of Trimbak Ráo Dhabarái, the son and successor of the Senapatí: and the two forthwith commenced their career of marauding in the fertile plains of Guzerát. But in 1729 the Peshwá Bájí Ráo obtained from Sarbuland Khán, the Mughal governor of Guzerát, a cession of *chauth* and other dues of that Province, and among other conditions of the grant, engaged to prevent Maráthá subjects from taking part with disaffected *zamíndárs*, or other disturbers of the peace. This clause was specially aimed at Pilájí Gáekwár, who, as deputy of the Senapatí, and himself in possession of the stronghold of Songhar (1719), commanding the principal route from the Deccan into Guzerát, exercised a commanding influence over the Bhíls and Kolís of the country, and had for some years levied contributions in his annual incursions.

Accordingly, Trimbak Ráo Dhabarái and Pilájí banded together the disaffected Maráthá chiefs to oppose the Peshwá, but in a battle fought near Baroda, on the 1st of April 1731, the confederates were defeated and Trimbak Ráo Dhabarái was killed. His infant son, Jaswant Ráo, was, however, appointed to the office of Senapatí, while Pilájí Gáekwár was confirmed in his former rank of lieutenant or Mutálik, with the additional title of Sena Khás Khel. It was further agreed that Jaswant Ráo should have the entire management in Guzerát, paying half the contributions to the Peshwá, and accounting for all sums levied from countries not mentioned in the deed of cession given by Sarbuland Khán to the Peshwá. This deed, however, had been in the meantime disallowed by the Emperor of Delhi. Sarbuland Khán was removed from office, and superseded by Abhí Singh, Rájá of Jodhpur (Jodhpore). On this Pilájí declared open war against the Imperial officers, defeated them in the field, and occupied many of the principal towns. Abhí Singh, finding that the personal qualities of Pilájí made him specially formidable, procured his assassination under the pretext of a conference, in 1732.

Pilájí was succeeded by his son Damá;í, during whose long and active career of nearly forty years, the whole of Guzerát was wrested from the Mughals. Jaswant Ráo, the Senapatí, when he came of age, proved incompetent for his post, and the Dhabarái family now gave place to the Gáekwárs. Possession of Baroda was obtained by Maháji Gáekwár, brother of Pilájí, in 1732, and the city has ever since been held by the Gáekwárs as the capital of their dominions. Damájí Gáekwár supported Tárá Bái in her effort to free her grandson, the Rájá of Satára, from the thraldom of the Peshwá Bálájí Báji Ráo; but he was treacherously seized by the Peshwá, and was not released till he consented to pay 15 *lakhs* of rupees on account of arrears of tribute in Guzerát, and also executed a bond to share equally all his possessions and future conquests. In the following year, the Peshwá obtained a partition of Damáji Gáekwár's conquests in Káthiáwár, and the Gáekwár agreed to assist the Peshwá with troops when necessary. Forthwith the armies of Domájí Gáekwár and of the Peshwá, under Raghuba, proceeded to the joint conquest of Guzerát. By 1755, the Mughal Government in Ahmadábád was entirely subverted. The revenue of Ahmadábád was divided between Damájí and the Peshwá; but, with the exception of one gateway, the city was held by the troops of the latter.

In the historic battle of Pánipat, fought on the 7th of January 1761, Damájí commanded his own contingent, and acquitted himself with credit. His horsemen supported the advance of the infantry of the Maráthá army, under the command of Ibráhím Khán Gardí, which defeated the opposite wing of the Afgháns; and Damájí was one of the few chiefs of the highest rank who returned in safety to their homes from that fatal field. The remaining years of his life were spent in enlarging and consolidating his territories. He dispossessed the family of Jawán Mard Khán Bábi of nearly all the Districts it had retained in northern Guzerát, leaving it only the original *jágír* of Rádhanpur and Sámi. He reduced the Ráhtor princes of Edar to the status of tributaries, made repeated progresses into Káthiáwár, where he made some solid acquisitions besides exacting black-mail, and, in fine, established himself as a sovereign power of the first class His connection with Raghuba, the Peshwá's general, was unfortunate. He supported him in his rebellion against Mádhu Ráo, and furnished him with troops under his own son, Govind Ráo. But in this war he was defeated, and Govind Ráo himself was taken prisoner at Dhodap, and he was compelled to submit to the imposition of a tribute of Rs. 525,000, and to render annual service with 3000 horse during peace and 4000 during war. He also agreed to pay Rs. 254,000 for certain Districts which the Peshwá promised to restore to him, making his tribute in all Rs. 779,000.

The death of Damájí, in 1768, was the signal for family dissensions, which eventually brought the State into its present connection with the British Government. Damájí had three lawful wives, and male issue by each. His first wife had one son, Govind Ráo; but the eldest son, Syájí Ráo, as well as Fateh Singh, were born of his second wife. Govind Ráo was at Poona (Púna) at the time of his father's death, and on paying a large *nazar* to the Peshwá Mádhu Ráo, and agreeing to the arrangements concluded with Damájí three years before, he procured his recognition as successor to his father's office of Sena Khás Khel. But Fateh Singh, a man of energy and talent, placed his brother Syájí on the throne at Baroda, and himself assumed the regency. He then proceeded in person to Poona, to obtain the reversal of the Peshwá's decision in favour of Govind Ráo. Mádhu Ráo, whose object was to divide the family, and thereby reduce the Gáekwár's power, eventually admitted Syájí's right, and thus the half-brothers Govind Ráo and Fateh Singh were made implacable enemies. To strengthen his position, Fateh Singh made overtures for an alliance with the British Government in 1772, but his proposal was at that time rejected. Colonel Keating's and Raghubá's campaign in Gujarát was followed by a rupture between the Court of Poona and the British Government, and this occasioned an offensive and defensive treaty with Fateh Singh, concluded by General Goddard on the 20th January 1780. This treaty was virtually annulled on the conclusion of peace with the Poona Government in 1782.

Fateh Singh Gáekwár died on the 21st December 1789. Mánájí, the younger son by a third wife of Damájí, assumed charge of the Government for his brother Syájí, and was recognised by the Peshwá on payment of a large *nazar*. At his death, in 1793, he was succeeded by Govind Ráo, to whom the Peshwá leased his share of the revenues of the Ahmadábád Districts. In September 1800, Govind Ráo died, and his eldest son, Anand Ráo, was acknowledged as his successor. He was of weak intellect, and the powers of the State were usurped by his illegitimate half-brother, Kanojí Ráo. The Minister of Anand Ráo made overtures to the British Government, to subsidize five battalions of Sepoys if Kanojí were reduced, and Anand Ráo saved from the domination of his Arab soldiery, whose demands for payment of arrears had become most menacing, while their fidelity was more than doubtful. The requisite assistance was given, Kanojí was removed to Madras, the Arabs crushed, and the money advanced or borrowed on British guarantee for payment of the troops, whose numbers were reduced. In 1815, in consequence of the murder of an envoy from Baroda, the well-known Gangádhar Shástri, the connection was broken off between the Gáekwár and the Peshwá, the head of the Maráthá confederacy. The latter had to renounce all future rights against the Gáekwár, and to

accept of an annual tribute of 4 *lákhs* of rupees (£40,000) in lieu of all claims, but the Gáekwár was released from the payment of even this small tribute on the overthrow of the Peshwá.

In 1817, a treaty was concluded for an increase of the subsidiary force, the cession to the British Government (for the payment of the additional force) of all the rights the Gáekwár had acquired by the so-called Ahmadábád farm on the Peshwá's territories in Guzerát, the consolidation of the territories of the British Government and of the Gáekwár by exchange of certain Districts, the co-operation of the Gáekwár's troops with those of the British Government in time of war, an engagement by the Gáekwár to maintain a contingent of 3000 horse at the disposal of the British Government, and the mutual surrender of criminals. Anand Ráo Gáekwár died in 1819, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Syájí Ráo, who in 1820 entered into a further convention with the British, whereby he agreed to send no troops into Káthiáwár and Mahi Kántha, and to make no demands on his tributaries except through the medium of the British Government, who on their part engaged to procure payment of the tribute free of expense to the Gáekwár. In 1847, Syájí Ráo died, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Ganpat Ráo, who, dying without male issue in 1856, was succeeded by his brother, Khandi Ráo. During the Mutiny of 1857–58, Khandi Ráo Gáekwár rendered faithful service to the British Government; and as a reward for his loyalty, the payment of 3 *lakhs* of rupees per annum was remitted, for which the Gáekwár's Government was liable for the maintenance of a body of cavalry known as the Guzerát Irregular Horse. He was also created G.C.S.I. in 1862.

Khandi Ráo died on the 28th November 1870, leaving no son, though his younger wife, Jamnábáí, was at the time of his death *enceinte*. The next heir to the throne was Khandi Ráo's younger brother, Malhár Ráo, who had been accused, in 1863, of being concerned in a conspiracy to compass the death of his brother, Khandi Ráo, by poison or other means, and was in consequence confined as a State prisoner at Padra, in Baroda territory. On the death of Khandi Ráo, Malhár Ráo was installed as his successor, on the understanding that if Jamnábáí were delivered of a son, the child should be recognised as Gáekwár. The posthumous child being a girl, Malhár Ráo retained his position. Malhár Ráo's rule, however, was such, that within three years after his installation, the British Government was obliged to appoint a Commission to inquire into numerous charges of maladministration preferred against him through the Resident at Baroda. On consideration of the report submitted by the Commission, the Government of India decided on giving the Gáekwár a term of seventeen months for effecting certain reforms described in the report as specially called for.

Before the expiration of this period, however, an attempt was made, in November 1874, to poison the Resident, Colonel Phayre. The inquiries instituted having warranted the conclusion that the attempt was instigated by Malhár Ráo, he was suspended from the functions of ruler on the 14th January 1875; and the charges against him were investigated by a High Commission, consisting of three European and three native members. The Commission was equally divided in opinion as to the guilt of Malhár Ráo; and the Government of India having regard to Malhár Ráo's notorious misconduct, his gross misgovernment of the State, and his evident incapacity to carry into effect the necessary reforms, deposed him from the sovereignty of the Baroda State, on 22nd April 1875. Syáji Ráo, a descendant of Pratáp Ráo, son of Piláji Ráo, the founder of the family, and younger brother of Damáji, whose line terminated with Malhár Ráo, having been selected as the most fit successor, Jamnábáí, the widow of Khandi Ráo Gáekwár, was permitted to adopt him, in consideration of Khandi Ráo's services during the Mutiny; and on the 27th May 1875, Syáji Ráo was installed as Gáekwár.

The Military Force maintained by the Baroda State consists of a regular force of 2 batteries of artillery, with 154 artillerymen and 42 guns (including 2 of gold and 2 of silver); a cavalry force of 247 officers and men, and 6 regiments of infantry,—aggregating 3016 of all ranks. These troops are all drilled and equipped on a similar system to that of the British army. Of the artillery, 1 battery consists of 2 gold and 2 silver 3-pounder guns respectively, and 1 light field battery of 6 guns, each being drawn by bullocks. Of the 6 regiments of infantry, 2 are local regiments, employed in the Káthiáwár Districts. Besides the regular army there is also a large irregular force, numbering about 6237, viz. 4410 horse and 1827 foot. The cost of the regular force is about 7½ *lákhs* of rupees (£75,000), while that of the irregular is estimated at 28 *lákhs* (£280,000) a year.

Agriculture, etc.—Luxuriant crops are grown of grain, cotton, tobacco, opium, sugar-cane, and oil-seeds. The staple food of the people is *bájrá*, but wheat and rice are also largely consumed. The Northern Division of Baroda is famous for its breed of large white cattle. Those used for travelling-carts are of great size and strength, and able to travel considerable distances; for short journeys they can keep up a pace of about 6 miles an hour. The breed of horses raised in the Káthiáwár Districts is celebrated throughout India.

Land Tenures.—With regard to lands which pay revenue, it may be broadly laid down that they are at the absolute disposal of the Government, the cultivators holding them at its pleasure, and not being in any degree proprietors, except when they have acquired rights either by direct grant or immemorial custom. Still,

the cultivator is not usually interfered with as long as he pays his revenue.

The prevailing tenure is *ráyatwárí*, where the State collects the revenue without the intervention of a third party. The varieties of this tenure are three:—1st, When the collection is made in cash assessed on each prevalent measure of land, such as the *bighá*; 2nd, When it is made in kind, according to a fixed share of the produce; 3rd, When it is made in cash at a certain rate per plough. There are other varieties of assessment adopted over an insignificant area of land among primitive communities, such as assessment by pickaxe. The old system of farming out villages and entire districts has been abolished, except in some exceptional cases. A permanent assessment has been granted to a few villages.

In cases where the State levies its assessments in kind, its share is fixed beforehand for every class of crop, the monsoon crops yielding a much larger share than the cold-season crops, which, again, pay more than those of the hot season, depending as these last do on irrigation. Besides the share in kind, a small rate in cash is charged on the estimated area of each holding, which is often miscalculated, but always in favour of the cultivator. The State also levies small quantities of the produce as contributions towards the expenses of the village, etc. The produce is either estimated as it stands in the field, or is actually weighed in the village barnyard, and the State share is then collected into storehouses and sold by officials.

The plough assessment, prevalent in the eastern Districts of the Navsári (southern) Division, and also in one Sub-division in the central Division inhabited by Bhíls and other primitive communities, is as follows:—A rate is fixed for one plough worked by two oxen, and increased if more than two pairs are employed, so that 3 oxen equal $1\frac{1}{2}$ plough; there is no limit to the amount of land the plough may be passed over.

Besides the above, the other prevailing custom, the *narwá*, is a lump sum assessed on the village from time to time according to its capabilities. The settlement is made with the *narwádárs* or superior holders, who in most cases are the descendants of men who established or peopled the village. The founders originally divided the lands and the village site among themselves according to the exigency of the circumstances; afterwards they separately and gradually invited cultivators to work in their respective lands, and to live in their respective shares of the village. These are now in law tenants-at-will; but the State would probably not suffer an old-established tenant to be ousted as a mere tenant-at-will might be, though, as a rule, no interference is exercised, and the *narwádár* may realize what he pleases from his tenants. The fruit-trees, grazing, etc., often yield a large additional profit, which is

not considered in the gross amount assessed by Government. The *bhágdári* tenure is somewhat different, though the *bhágdárs* too are superior holders. But the lands of the village are measured and assessed, and the result is fixed as the revenue payable by the *bhagdárs*, who are generally allowed to realize from the cultivators more than the sum paid to Government, on the supposition that they have to let poor lands at less than the Government rates. Again, some villages are held by landlords of the higher class called *mehwásis*, each of whom pays for one or more villages a lump sum, settled by the State annually or from time to time, which does not as a rule interfere with the internal fiscal arrangements.

A cultivator is seldom ousted for failure to pay the assessment. His private property is liable to be sold, but if he has no saleable property, he is suffered to pay by instalments. There is no rule as to the liability of land to attachment and sale for private debt. Implements of agriculture (including carts and oxen), also seed-grain, clothes and ornaments in ordinary use, and food sufficient for a reasonable time, belonging to a cultivator and his family, are exempted from the process of a civil court.

Means of Communication.—The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway passes through the territory at two points,—it first enters the Navsári Division south of Surat, where are two stations, Navsári and Billimorá; north of Broach the railway again passes through Baroda territory from Miyágám to the Mahi river, in which section are the stations of Miyágám, Itolá, Baroda, and Bajwa. There are 59 miles of railway on the 2′ 6″ gauge belonging to the Gáekwár's Government, namely, a line from Baroda to Chandod, with branch lines from Dabhoi to Badarpur and to Miajágám. The Western Rájputána State Railway passes through the northern division of the State. There are only about 20 miles of made road. Common country tracks of the rudest description exist all over the State, but most of them are barely practicable for cart traffic during eight months of the year, owing to the sandy nature of the soil, and utterly impassable during the monsoon except for horses, pack-bullocks, and camels.

Administration, etc.—The total revenue of the State in 1880–81 was estimated at £1,118,232, composed of the following items:—(1) Land revenue, £850,637; (2) Customs, £93,815; (3) Taxes on caste and trade, £30,897; (4) *Abkárí*, including opium, £41,835; (5) Forests, £6951; (6) Tribute from Native States of Gujarát and Káthiáwár, £63,767; (7) Justice, £25,572; (8) Miscellaneous, £4754. Of the total estimated revenue, £1,067,692 was realized during the year, leaving a balance of only £50,540; the greater portion of this balance being on account of land revenue.

The land revenue is paid in four instalments, viz. 1st December, 4

ánnás in the rupee; 2nd January, 6 *ánnás* in the rupee; 3rd March, 4 *ánnás* in the rupee; and 4th April, 2 *ánnás* in the rupee: but in villages which produce cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, and such-like crops, and in which the cultivators belong to the Kanbí and cognate classes, the revenue is realized in three instalments, thus: 1st December, 2 *ánnás* in the rupee; 2nd March, 8 *ánnás* in the rupee; 3rd April, 6 *ánnás* in the rupee. In villages inhabited by Kolís and other needy classes, the land revenue is collected in two equal payments.

General supervision in revenue matters is entrusted to an officer called the *Sar Súbhá* or Revenue Commissioner, who receives a monthly salary of £200. Under him are four officers, styled *Súbhás*, answering to the Collectors of a British District, each of whom has charge of one of the four Divisions of the State, and receives a salary varying from £55 to £120 a month. Subordinate to the *Súbhás* are 10 *Náibs* or deputy *Súbhás*, corresponding to deputy or assistant collectors, each with the charge of a Sub-division, whose monthly pay varies from £30 to £45. The 10 Sub-divisions are again apportioned into 31 minor divisions, styled *táluks* or *mahals*, managed by *vahiwatidárs* or *tahsíldárs*. On account of their size, 9 of the *táluks* are further sub-divided into two portions, managed by sub-*tahsíldárs* or *mahalkárs*.

At Baroda itself there is a *Varisht Adálat*, or High Court, presided over by a chief-justice, with a salary of £150 a month, and a second judge on a salary of £120. The jurisdiction of the *Varisht Adálat* extends throughout the whole territory, both in original suits and as a court of final appeal and revision in civil and criminal matters. There are 4 divisional judges, one at the head-quarters of each Division, with power to try original suits of upwards of £300 in value, and to hear civil and criminal appeals. There is a fifth judge for the city of Baroda, as well as a joint judge and an assistant judge. There is also at the capital a *Sardár's* court, which takes cognisance of cases in which certain privileged classes, such as the members of the Gáekwár's family and the nobles of the State are concerned. There are 15 *munsifs*, with power to try civil suits up to £300. In 1880–81, the total number of suits was nearly 15,000, of which 12,500 were disposed of. The total value under litigation was £250,600; the amount of court fees, £15,500.

In criminal matters the *Varisht Adálat* has power to inflict the following sentences:—Fourteen years' imprisonment, fine to any amount, or both fine and imprisonment, and 30 stripes. Higher sentences require confirmation by His Highness the Máharájá. The District judges may inflict 7 years' imprisonment, fine to any amount, and 30 stripes. The *Súbhás* or Collectors have the same powers. The *Naib Súbhás* are entrusted with power to inflict 2 years' imprisonment, and fine up to £100. The *Vahiwatdárs* have power to inflict

6 months' imprisonment, and fine up to £20. There are also 3rd class magistrates and special magistrates. In the city of Baroda, there are 2 magistrates, one of whom may give 2 years' imprisonment and fine up to £100; the other, 6 months' imprisonment and fine up to £20. The total number of criminal cases tried during 1880-81 was 7600. The total number of accused persons was, in round numbers, 15,000; the ratio of convictions was 39 per cent., and of acquittal 31 per cent.

The police of all the four Divisions, and of the city of Baroda, has been lately reorganized. There is a central jail in Baroda for life prisoners and those sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. In addition, there are 7 *zilá* or District jails and 31 *mahal* or Sub-divisional jails. In the central jail there were, on the 1st of April 1882, 506 prisoners.

The general administration is carried on in the following manner. The Díwán or Prime Minister exercises supervision over every department. Under one officer are placed the political, military, and settlement departments; under another, the judicial, *khángi* (private), general, and educational; under a third, the police, jail, municipality, medical, and public works; under a fourth, the audit, treasury, accounts, and mint. The salary of these four officers under the Díwán varies from £100 to £150 a month. Almost every department in the State has been reorganized within the last few years, under the energetic administration of Sir T. Mádhava Ráo, K.C.S.I., who was appointed Díwán on the installation of the present Gáekwár. Sir Mádhava Ráo retired in 1883, and was succeeded by Kází Sháhab-ud-dín.

As an independent State, Baroda has from the earliest times exercised the prerogative of coinage at its own mint. The silver coins are termed the new *syasháhi* or *bábásháhi* rupees; the copper coins, Baroda *pice*. The Baroda rupee is of the value of about 13 *ánnás* 11 *pies*, British currency; or 114½ *bábásháhi* are equal to Rs. 100 or £10. In the year ending July 1876, 3,356,438 *bábásháhi* rupees were coined, representing a value of £293,138, and the net profit to the State was £4252. In the year ending July 1882, 1,754,063 *bábásháhi* rupees were coined, representing a value of £153,193, and the net profit to the State was £2291. The Baroda coinage circulates throughout the State generally, and also in the adjoining countries of the Rewá Kánthá. The old Broach coinage is still in circulation in Navsári Division. It is at present in contemplation to strike a coinage similar to the British, and to introduce machinery into the Baroda mint. The following is the rude process still adopted in coining:—A large hole is made in the ground, in which is placed an earthenware vessel capable of containing 20,000 *tolás* of silver; the metal is then poured with spoons into long, thin, shallow moulds, each containing from 10 to 20 *tolás* of silver.

After cooling, quantities of 100 to 500 *tolás* are handed over to the goldsmiths, who clean them and stamp them by hand.

The telegraph wire accompanies the railway throughout its course, and there is also a Government wire to Baroda.

There are 12 hospitals and 23 dispensaries in the whole State. Of these, 4 hospitals and 2 dispensaries are in the city of Baroda, and the remainder in the Districts, including those at the military stations of Okhámandal and Dhári. The total number treated in 1880–81 was 6724 in-door, and 143,892 out-door patients. During the same year there were 31 vaccinators employed, who operated upon 61,170 persons.

In the year 1880–81, there were 192 educational insiitutions in the territory, either solely maintained at the cost of the State, or receiving grants-in-aid. The total expenditure to the State on account of education was Baroda Rupees 156,449, or about £13,606, exclusive of expenditure on educational buildings. Of the 192 schools, 172 were Government institutions with 17,089 pupils, and 20 private schools receiving grants-in-aid, with 1252 pupils. Of the 172 Government schools 1 is a high school, 1 an Anglo-Indian institution, 7 Anglo-vernacular schools, and 162 vernacular schools, including 8 schools for girls, and 9 Sanskrit schools of the indigenous type, in most of which some one of the Vedas, astronomy, grammar or logic are taught in the old Hindu fashion. The English department of education in the State is under the supervision of a European, whose salary is £85 a month. A native is the Director of Vernacular Instruction, receiving a salary of £50 per month. He is assisted by 2 inspectors of schools. The High School has a college division affiliated to the University of Bombay.

The Baroda State comprises 3720 towns and villages, including hamlets, besides the city of Baroda, of which 31 contain a population of more than 5000 inhabitants each.

Climate.—Over so wide a range of country, the climate necessarily varies much in character—from the dry air and extreme fluctuations of temperature that mark the north of Guzerát, to the moister and more equable climate of the south. From its open situation on the sea-coast, Okhámandal enjoys a healthy and bracing air, well suited to the European constitution. The climate of the central division, and of the city of Baroda itself, is comparatively moist, and during the rains very damp. The average annual rainfall is 42·82 inches. The maximum temperature in Baroda city is about 105° F. in the hottest time of the day in May or June, the minimum temperature about 80°. During the cold weather months, the temperature varies from a maximum of 92° to a minimum of 59°. [For further information regarding Baroda, see the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, vol. vii., by F. A. H. Elliot, Esq., tutor to His Highness the Gáekwár

(Bombay, 1883). Mr. Elliot's elaborate and admirably complete volume unfortunately reached me too late to be utilized in the preparation of this article, which is therefore substantially reproduced from the first edition of *The Imperial Gazetteer*, with statistics up to 1881.]

Baroda.—Division of Baroda State, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency, comprising the Districts of Baroda, Chořánda, Jarod, Petlad, Padra, Dabhoi, Sinor, Sankheda, Tilakwara, and Chándod. Population (1881) 654,989, namely, 349,283 males, and 305,706 females.

Baroda.—The chief city or capital of the territory of the Gáekwár, in 22° 17′ 30″ N. lat., and 73° 16′ E. long. It contains 24,027 houses, and a total population (1881) of 106,512, including 4694 persons returned as being in the cantonment. It is the second city of Guzerát, and the third in the Bombay Presidency. It is situated east of the deep, sunk bed of the little river Viswámitri, over whose tortuous course and side channels four stone bridges have been erected, leading from the cantonment to the town. The largest of these was thus referred to nearly a century ago by Mr. Forbes in his *Oriental Memoirs*:—'It is a stone bridge consisting of two ranges of arches over each other. I mention it because it is the only bridge of the kind I ever saw in India.' His description of the city, though somewhat highly coloured, needs but few alterations and additions. The beautiful trees by which it was then surrounded, still half conceal numerous temples and tombs, chiefly of Musalmán noblemen, while here and there are fine wells, such as the *Nav Lákh ki Báwali*—the Nine *Lákh* (or £90,000) Well—near the tomb of the Amín Sáhib. 'The city proper is intersected by two spacious streets, dividing it into four equal parts, meeting in the centre in the market-place, which contains a square pavilion with three bold arches on each front. This pavilion is a Mughal building, as is everything else that has the smallest claim to grandeur and elegance. The Maráthá structures are mean and shabby—none more so than the Darbár finished by Fateh Singh, which resembles most Hindu palaces in want of taste and proportion of architecture and elegance in the interior decorations.'

This condemnation of the last century applies equally to the palace built by the late Syáji Mahárájá, and now occupied by the present Gáekwár and his queen,—a shapeless heap of crowded little rooms and narrow winding staircases. Immediately behind it and the pavilion already alluded to, towers high above the town the Nazar Bágh Palace, built by the late Gáekwár Malhár Ráo, and now used as a treasure-house for the Gáekwár's jewels, valued at over three millions sterling. Although unduly crowded by the neighbouring houses, this lofty edifice has some architectural merit, and the interior is not wanting in finish. In the neighbourhood of the palace, but somewhat nearer

the Laripura gate, are collected most of the bankers' houses. But the wealthiest of the bankers, Mairál, lives in the Muhammad Wádi, a suburb probably named after the Guzerát king to whom Baroda owes its early pre-eminence. Near the bankers live the jewellers, who drove a thriving trade during the reign of the late Gáekwár. Behind the Nazar Bágh is situated the walled arena in which the athlete, the rhinoceros, the elephant, the buffalo, and the ram still fight—though less frequently than of old—for the amusement of the court and holiday-loving populace.

On one side of this arena, just beyond the Water-gate, are the aviaries and menageries; while on the other, but beyond the Champáner gate, is the *filkháná*, where, in the time of Khandi Ráo, nearly one hundred elephants were kept at great expense, but now their number has been greatly reduced. Not far from this gate is the Sher Sháh tank, one of the two large reservoirs on which Baroda is dependent for its water supply. It is connected by iron piping with the Sur Ságar tank, near the Laripura gate; and both are fed by rain-water. The iron pipe was the work of Malhár Ráo, and by its means, the large fire which broke out in 1875 in the wealthy quarter of the town, was prevented from doing a vast amount of damage. There are no springs in the neighbourhood of Baroda, and the people depend upon wells for their drinking water, which is both insufficient and bad, owing to the entire absence of any system of drainage. Active measures were taken by the late minister, Sir T. Madhava Ráo, to remedy these defects.

The large majority of the houses are of the meanest description, and so overcrowded, that the chief sanitary problem is how to devise accommodation for the large number of inhabitants. There is no doubt that the capital has much increased in size during the present century; and the impress of Musalmán rule, so clearly distinguished by Mr. Forbes, is no longer visible. The chief houses are those in the suburb built by the Gáekwár's ministers and noblemen. Eighteen horse *págás*—large lines—and Khandi Ráo's parade ground cover a considerable portion of the area of the town, while the Gáekwár's gardens and garden palaces, situated to the west and south of the suburbs, form a striking feature of the place. Beyond the Khoti, within the suburbs, are the jail, the high school, and the Government offices. Three miles south of the Ghendá (rhinoceros) gate of the city, is the Makarpurá palace, built by Khandi Ráo. Some new, large, and beautiful buildings, such as the Jamnábái Hospital, the Baroda State library, the public offices, the central jail, the Lakshmi Vilás palace, the Baroda college, together with the public park situated between the cantonments and the city, have added greatly to the attractions of Baroda.

But most notable of all are the Hindu temples which crowd this religious city. Hard by the stone bridges are two temples to Siva; while numerous lesser shrines perpetuate divine honours rendered to those who have ruled the State—the Gáekwárs Govind Ráo and Anand Ráo, the Ránís Ghenábái, and the wife of the late Gáekwár Malhár Ráo. In them may be seen either their images in stone life-size, or at least their feet as far as the ankle. These are the benefactors who instituted or continued the *khichadi*, or practice of giving food daily to thousands of male and female Bráhmans of the Deccan. This extravagant liberality was extended by Khandi Ráo to the Musalmán poor.

The chief State temples are those of Vithal Mandir, which has the largest allowances; Swámi Náráyan's Mandir, a great edifice; the temple of Khandobá, the tutelary god of the Gáekwár's family; that of Becharájí and Bhímnáth, where Bráhmans undergo penance for the spiritual welfare of the Gáekwárs and the confusion of their enemies, or daily read the Saptashati prayers to Mahá Káli; the temples of Sidhnáth, Káliká, and Bolái, and Lakshman Báwá's Rám Mandir. The Guzerátis have their temples, such as that of Nársaijk, Gobardhán Náthjí, Baldewájí, the Ganpati Mandir, and the temple of Káshi Visheshwar.

The city proper within the walls is divided into 17 streets or quarters, which extend farthest towards the west, that is, in the direction of the river and the cantonment. Here are the Modi Khánà or Gáekwár's commissariat; the quarters named after Syájí; after Ráojí Apájí, the Minister who called in the English, in which the Mazumdár and the Nawáb of Baroda, a descendant of Mir Kamál-ud-dín, live; after Gangádhar Shástri, whose murder led to the rupture between the English and the last Peshwá; after Anand Ráo; and after Bábjí, the brother of Ráojí Apájí.

The northern suburbs are composed of 12 quarters or streets, the chief of which, named after Fateh Singh, contains the house of Bháu Sindhiá, the Minister of the late Khandi Ráo, the stables, the carriage-houses, and the Háthi Khánà of the Gáekwár, as well as one of the two schools of athletes. The eastern suburb consists of only 5 streets or quarters, and comprises the arena, the menageries, and Anand Ráo's old palace. The southern suburbs are divided into 11 streets or quarters, one of which, the Muhammad Wádi, is inhabited by the Farnavís, the first officer in the State by rank, and by the heir of the great banker Gopál Ráo Mairál; there are also quarters named after Khandobá's temple, and the Musalmán fortification called the Monkey's Tower. There is a good library in the city of Baroda, near the public offices, with a branch in the middle of the city.

The Census of 1881 gives Baroda city a population of 101,818, and Baroda cantonment a population of 4694 persons; total, 106,512.

The Hindus numbered 84,042, and included the following castes:—Bráhmans, 17,155; Rájputs, 2001; other Hindus, 64,886, of whom 43,857 belonged to low castes, and the remainder to agriculturists, artisans, and castes of good social position. The Muhammadans numbered 19,149, being 17,000 Sunnís and 2148 Shiás. The Musalmáns proper comprise Patháns, negroes, and Arabs, the relics, perhaps, of the mercenary troops largely enlisted at one time by the Gáekwár.

The city has now been placed under a sanitary and a municipal commissioner, who has organized the necessary conservancy, lighting, watering, and other sanitary arrangements at an annual cost of Baroda Rs. 192,700, or £17,266. The whole area is considered the property of Government. Unless a document called a *kabálá* is shown, all owners of land pay a tax at the rate of 1s. per foot; if the proprietor can produce a *kabálá* for a portion only of his property, the excess land is charged at 3d. per foot in order to prevent encroachments; but this tax has been long in abeyance. The survey made is of course a rough one only, but the income derived from this source amounts to £200 a year. Permission to build or rebuild houses is granted on payment of 2s. (R. 1); to open doors and windows, at 10s. (Rs. 5) per 2 feet, or 1 *gaz.* The income from this source is about £108 a year.

Baroda.—Large and flourishing agricultural village in Gohána *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab, situated on the Butána branch of the Western Jumna Canal, in lat. 29° 9′ 30″ N., long. 76° 40′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5900, namely, 5603 Hindus, 14 Jains, and 283 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 693 acres.

Barodsair.—Town in Gwalior Territory, Central India. Population (1881) 6787.

Baronda.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, Central India Agency.—*See* BARAUNDA.

Baroli – see Bhainsror garh.

Barot (*Baraut*).—Ancient town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; distant 27 miles from Meerut; lies on the left bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, amid a perfect network of distributaries, which somewhat interfere with the natural lines of drainage, but steps are being taken to remedy this defect. Lat. 29° 6′ 5″ N., long. 77° 18′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 7956, namely, 4682 Hindus, 2127 Muhammadans, 1142 Jains, and 5 Christians. Area of town site, 62 acres. Municipal income (1880–81) £765, mainly derived from octroi duties; expenditure, £839. Said to have been founded in the eighth century. Contains two markets, two *bázárs*, ancient fort now used as a police station, post-office, school, handsome Hindu and Jain temple, many brick-built houses inhabited by Saraugi bankers; declining trade in *ghí* and safflower; manufacture of buckets and iron caldrons. The Játs of Barot were conspicuous for disloyalty during the Mutiny, and their estates were confiscated on the restoration of order.

Barpáli. — Estate or *zamindári* attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 24 miles south-west of the town of Sambalpur, with 86 villages, and an area of about 180 square miles, of which not quite three-fourths are cultivated. The whole *zamindári* is a flat, open, and richly cultivated tract, yielding a revenue of £830 to the chief, who pays a tribute of £90 to the Government. The population in 1881 numbered 29,163, the prevailing castes being Kultás or agriculturists, Ladras or carriers, and Bhulias or weavers. Chief products—rice, cotton, oil-seeds, pulses, and sugar-cane; manufactures—coarse cloth, *tasar* silk, and brass vessels. The estate was granted about 1620 by Ratan Singh, the sixth Rájá of Sambalpur, to his brother Bikram Singh, on a rent-free tenure; and it has since descended in the regular line of succession to the present *zamíndár*, now (1883) a well-educated young man of about 30 years of age.

Barpáli.—Town in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Barpáli estate, situated in lat. 21° 11′ N., long. 83° 37′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 4125, namely, Hindus, 4023; Muhammadans, 72; and aboriginal tribes, 30. The *tasar* silk cloth woven here holds a high reputation in the surrounding country. The chief, who is an honorary magistrate, holds his court in Barpáli town. Anglo-vernacular school.

Barpetá.—Sub-division in the north-west of Kámrúp District, Assam. Area, 206 square miles; population (1881) 133,030, namely, Hindus, 127,738; Muhammadans, 5283; and 'others,' 9; number of villages, 612; number of occupied houses, 27,172. The Sub-division, which was constituted in March 1841, consists of the two police circles (*thánás*) of Barpetá and Bajálí. It contained, in 1883, 2 civil and 2 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 36 men.

Barpetá.—Chief town of Barpetá Sub-division, in the north of Kámrúp District, Assam; on the Chául-Khoyá river, a tributary of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 26° 19′ 45″ N., long. 91° 3′ 20″ E.; population (1881), with surrounding villages, 13,758, namely, Hindus, 13,702, and Muhammadans, 56. There is a considerable river-borne trade in rice, oil-seeds, cotton, caoutchouc, etc.

Barrackpur.—Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between 22° 40′ 30″ and 22° 49′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 22′ 45″ and 88° 30′ E. long.; area, 42 square miles, with 67 villages and 15,413 inhabited houses; population (1881) 62,417, namely, 42,866 Hindus, 18,603 Muhammadans, 907 Christians, and 41 Buddhists; average density of population, 1486 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·60; houses per square mile, 408; persons per village, 930; persons per house, 4·0. The Sub-division consists of the *thánás* (police circles) of Barrackpur and Nawábganj.

Barrackpur.—Town and cantonment in the District of the Twenty-

four Parganás, Bengal; on the Húglí river, 15 miles above Calcutta. Lat. 22° 45′ 40″ N., long. 88° 23′ 52″ E. Population (1881), including Nawábganj, 17,702, namely, 14,050 Hindus, 3623 Muhammadans, and 29 'others.' The name of the place is said to be derived from the fact of troops having been stationed here since 1772. The natives call Barrackpur 'Chának,' after Job Charnock, the founder of Calcutta, who built a bungalow here, in which he occasionally lived, and established a small *bázár* (1689). To the south of the cantonment is Barrackpur Park, which is laid out with much taste. Within this park is the suburban residence of the Viceroy of India, built by Lord Minto and enlarged by the Marquis of Hastings; and also the tomb of Lady Canning. Military force stationed in the cantonment on the 16th of September 1882—1 battery of Royal Artillery, consisting of 8 officers and 150 men, a detachment of European and a regiment of Native infantry.

Barrackpur has played an important part in two Sepoy mutinies. In 1824, when Bengal troops were required to take part in the Burmese war, the 47th Bengal Infantry, which was stationed here, was warned for foreign service. Though at first willing enough to march, a greatly exaggerated account of the check received by the British troops at Rámu cooled their enthusiasm; and when a lying story was circulated, that, owing to the failure of the efforts of the Commissariat Department to obtain land transport, the men were to be put on board ship and taken to Rangoon by sea, the excitement, which had been gradually gaining force, developed into a determination to resist. In spite of the attempts at conciliation made by Colonel Cartwright, who commanded the regiment, they mutinied on parade on the 30th October, declaring that they would not go to Burma by sea, and that they would not march unless allowed 'double *batta*.' A second time (on the 1st November) the Sepoys were mutinous on parade; and the following morning Sir Edward Paget, the commander-in-chief, after an ineffectual attempt at explanation, told the Sepoys that they must either obey the order to march or ground their arms. They refused, and a battery of European artillery, which Sir Edward Paget had brought with him, supported by two English regiments, opened upon the mutineers. They broke at once, and made for the river, throwing away their arms. Some of them were shot, some drowned, and others hanged; and the number of the regiment was removed from the Army List.

Barrackpur was again the scene of mutiny in 1857. Early in that year the excitement about the alleged pollution of the new cartridges had made itself felt in every military station, and many of the Sepoys firmly believed that the English were deliberately plotting to destroy the caste of the native soldier, and to force him to embrace Christianity. A thousand absurd rumours obtained ready credence, despite the endeavours of General Hearsey, commanding the division, to allay

the fears of the men. Incendiarism, clearly traced to the troops, had become common. The excitement grew more intense from week to week, until, on the 29th March, the crisis was brought about by a private of the 34th Native Infantry, named Mangal Pánde, who attempted to kill one of the officers, Lieutenant Baugh, fired at a European sergeant-major, and called upon his comrades to join him. These outrages were committed within a few yards of the quarter-guard, where a native officer and 20 men were on duty, but no steps were taken to interfere. The regiment was disbanded with ignominy on the 6th of May, Mangal Pánde and the native officer in charge of the guard having been previously tried by court-martial and hanged. A full account of these events will be found in Sir John Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, vol. i. pp. 266–269, 495 *sq.*

Barsána.—Town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 27° 29′ N., and long. 77° 24′ E., lying at the foot and on the slope of a small ridge near the border of Bhartpur State, the summit of the ridge being crowned with temples in honour of Rádhá, the wife of Krishna. Half-way down the slope, a long flight of steps leads to the temple of Mahiban, Rádhá's grandfather. The town was founded in the early part of the last century, and flourished till the middle of the present century, but it is now in ruins. Remains of ancient buildings and of sacred bathing tanks.

Barsi. — Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 596 square miles, containing 1 town and 122 villages. Population (1881) 110,046, of whom 55,242 were returned as males, and 54,804 as females. Of Hindus there are 101,588; of Muhammadans, 7456; and of 'others,' 1002.

Bársi.—Chief town of the Sub-division of Barsi, in Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; distant 43 miles north of Sholápur, and 128 miles east of Poona (Púna). Lat. 18° 13′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 44′ 30″ E.; population (1882) 16,126, namely, Hindus, 14,026; Muhammadans, 1682; Jains, 321; Christians, 46; and Pársís, 11; area of town site, 240 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £5325; rate of taxation, 3s. 8¼d. per head. Expenditure (1880–81) £1781. Considerable trade is carried on at Bársi, the staples being cotton, linseed, and oil, exported chiefly to Bombay. The estimated annual export of cotton is about 11,400 tons or 52,000 Bombay *candies*, and of linseed, from 80,000 to 90,000 bags of 1½ cwt. each. The town has a sub-judge's court and a post-office.

Bársi-Takli.—Town in Akola District, Berár. Population (1881) 5377, namely, 2697 males and 2680 females. Of the total population, 3941 were returned as Hindus, 1382 as Musalmáns, and 54 as Pársís. Area of town site, 127 acres.

Barsinghpur.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 8 miles north of

Unao town. Named after Barsingh Deo, who is said to have reclaimed the site from jungle in the fifteenth century. His descendants are still in possession. Population (1881) 2044, namely, Hindus, 2015, and Muhammadans, 29. No market, and no local trade or manufactures.

Barsoí.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. On the east bank of the Mahánandá; 34 miles from Purniah, and 8 miles from Balrámpur. Lat. 25° 37′ 15″ N., long. 87° 58′ 26″ E. The village has one of the largest weekly markets in the District, which is numerously attended by people from a distance of two or three days' journey. The chief articles of wholesale trade are dried fish, tortoises, treacle (*gur*), country-made cloth, chilies, turmeric, and onions. These commodities are bought in considerable quantities by *paikárs* or petty traders, who retail them throughout the District. Gunny-bags and mats, locally manufactured, are also largely sold at the market. The village is a police outpost station.

Bárúdpura. — *Thákurate* or petty State in Central India.—*See* BHARUDPURA.

Báruipur.—Until recently a Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; lying between 21° 30′ 45″ and 22° 30′ N. lat.; and between 88° 25′ 15″ and 88° 50′ 45″ E. long. Area, 442 square miles; villages, 808; houses, 28,822, of which 27,502 are occupied. Population (1881) 199,488, namely, Hindus, 136,097; Muhammadans, 62,310; Christians, 942; Buddhists, 15; Pársís, 4; and aboriginal tribes, 120. This Sub-division was abolished in March 1883, and attached to the head-quarters Sub-division, the opening of the Diamond Harbour Railway rendering the courts at Alipur more accessible than those at Báruipur.

Báruipur ('*Village of* Pán-*growers*').—Town in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated 16 miles south of Calcutta, on the east bank of the Adi Gangá, the now almost dry bed of the ancient channel of the Ganges. Lat. 22° 21′ 30″ N., long. 88° 29′ E. Population (1881) 3742, namely, 1895 males and 1847 females. Municipal income in 1881-81, £367; expenditure, £441. A small town police force is maintained. *Pán* or betel-leaf is extensively grown in the village, whence its name (*bárui*, '*pán*-grower'). It is a mission station of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and has a church capable of holding 700 people. Station on the Diamond Harbour Railway.

Bárul.—Iron ore field in Bardwán District, Bengal. Bárul is a village in the middle of the iron tract (lat. 23° 44′ N., long. 87° 9′ E.), and for the sake of convenience the name is applied to the whole field. Bounded as follows:—On the north, Churuliá; on the east, Jámsol; on the west and south, Satur, to within about half a mile of the village of Rájpur. Throughout this entire area, iron ore of excellent quality has been found. According to a careful estimate made by a skilled

inspector in 1855, each square mile should yield 6½ millions of tons of iron ore, capable of producing in pig iron no less than 1,600,000 tons, 'equal to the make of eight furnaces, at 70 tons per week, for a period, in round numbers, of rather more than 59 years.' The only serious difficulty in the way of the profitable manufacture of iron is the scarcity of flux. The whole subject is carefully discussed in a Report published in 1856 by Mr. David Smith, Government iron and coal viewer, who had been deputed to report on the iron deposits in Bardwán District, and on the suitability of the local coal for the manufacture of iron. The portion of his report referring to this field is quoted fully in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iv. pp. 125–133.

Báruníbuntá. — Hills in Cuttack District, Bengal; the highest range in the District. They are densely covered with primitive jungle, and the surrounding country is inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Savars. Principal peak, MAHAVINYAKA, with Sivaite temples and images.

Barúr (*Warúd*). — Town in Amraoti District, Berár; on the Chorámam river, 65 miles east of Ellichpur. Lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., long. 77° 46′ E.; population (1881) 6607, of whom 5853 are Hindus, chiefly Mális, 646 Musalmáns, and 108 Jains. Houses mostly flat-roofed. Market on Sundays. Trade in cotton, turmeric, and molasses. The temples to Mahádeo and Rámchandra are interesting. Public buildings — police station, rest-house for travellers, Government and private schools.

Bárwa.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 10 square miles. Land revenue, £780.

Bárwa (*Báruva*).—Town and port partly situate in the estate of Bárwa, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 52′ 40″ N., long. 84° 37′ 35″ E.; population (1881) 4298, all Hindus, 24 per cent. of the working portion being fishermen and boatmen. Situated at the southernmost limit of the Uriyá country. Exports, chiefly of copra and copra oil, valued in 1880–81 at £5796; imports, £616.

Bárwai.—*Parganá* of Indore State in Nimár, under the Bhopawar Agency of Central India. This *parganá* formerly yielded a revenue of £7000 from 20 villages. In 1824, the revenue amounted to little more than £2300. The town of Bárwai is situated about a mile north of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and 32 miles east of Mahesar, the lands about it are extremely fertile, and the town being a station of the Rájputána-Málwá railway, is rising in importance, and being restored to its former condition. Transferred to Holkar in 1867, together with Dhargáon, Khasráwáda, and Mandlesar.

Barwála.—Town in Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; on the left bank of the river Utauli, 80 miles south-west of Ahmadábád. Lat. 22° 8′ 15″ N., long. 71° 57′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 5813. The

town is surrounded with a fine wall. Population under five thousand. Travellers' bungalow.

Barwála.—*Tahsíl* of Hissár District, Punjab, lying between 29° 16′ 45″ and 29° 36′ 30″ N. lat., and between 75° 47′ 45″ and 76° 4′ 15″ E. long. Area, 580 square miles; population (1881) 78,549, namely, Hindus, 51,279; Muhammadans, 26,317; Sikhs, 677; and 'others,' 276; average persons per square mile, 128. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £5631. It contains one civil and one criminal court, presided over by the *tahsíldár*. Police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 35 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 204.

Barwála.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl;* distant 18 miles north-east of Hissár. Population (1881) 3628. Surrounding ruins testify the former importance of this town, which is now merely a local centre of no commercial consideration. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office. Principal inhabitants, Sayyids, who own the neighbouring country.

Barwán.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Saromannagar and Páli *parganás*, east by Báwan, south by Sándi, and west by Katiári *parganás*. According to local tradition, the country was originally held by the Thatheras, who were afterwards expelled by the Sombansís. They in their turn gave way before the Muhammadans; but in the beginning of the 15th century, Rájá Barwán, grandson of the Sombansí chief who had fled to the Kumáun Hills, was allowed by the Governor of Kanauj to resume possession of his grandfather's domain, and to establish himself at Baburhia, the deserted capital of the Thatheras, which he re-named Barwán. For a time the country was held by two brothers, descendants of Rájá Barwán, who refused to pay tribute, and resisted all attempts at coercion. Eventually they were persuaded to send their sons to Akbar's court, where they so distinguished themselves by military service in the Deccan that the Emperor bestowed upon them a formal rent-free grant of the *parganá*, together with the title of Khán. The Sombansís have held Barwán uninterruptedly for 4½ centuries, and are still in possession of 68 out of the 69 villages which comprise the *parganá*. They have always given much trouble to the revenue authorities, and were until recent years notorious thieves and cattle-lifters. Physically, Barwán may be described as a backward, roadless, and somewhat inaccessible *parganá*, lying along both sides of the Garra river, between the central *bangar* or high lands and the low-lying *kachh* country along the Ganges and Rámgangá. To the east the country consists of a high irregular ridge of sand, sinking westward into a low and fertile marshy tract watered by winding streams and *jhils*, and overgrown here and there with patches of *dhák* jungle. Area, 53 square miles, of which 33 are cultivated. Government land revenue demand,

£2843, 10s.; average incidence, 2s. 8½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 8¼d. per acre of total area. Population (1881) 17,490, namely, 10,244 males and 7246 females. The percentage of females to males among the agricultural population is the lowest in any of the Oudh *parganás*. Number of villages, 69. Five village schools, including one for girls.

Barwán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Garra river, 13 miles west of Hardoi, and 19 miles east of Fatehgarh. The fort was destroyed on the re-occupation of the country after the Mutiny. Barwán is now an insignificant village of 216 mud huts, with a population (1881) of 1552. It has but little trade of its own, but considerable quantities of cotton, grain, timber, hides, and sugar pass down the Garra from Bareilly, Sháhjahánpur, Anúpshahr, and Pilibhít, on their way to Cawnpur, Mirzápur, and Benares. Government school.

Barwáni.—State under the Deputy Bhíl (Bheel) Agency of Central India. It lies north of Khándesh, on the left bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, between lat. 21° 41′ and 22° 9′ N., and long. 74° 29′ and 75° 22′ E. The country abounds in fine timber and is well watered by mountain streams, but only partially cultivated. Area, 1362 square miles; population (1881) 56,445 (mostly Bhíls), distributed in 1 town and 299 villages, and occupying 10,216 houses; number of persons per square mile, 41·4. Of the total population, Hindus number 44,818; Muhammadans, 2632; Jains, 381; Christians, 9; and aboriginal tribes, 8605. Revenue, about £13,000. The Chiefs of this State are Sesodia Rájputs of the Udaipur (Oodeypore) family, who separated from the parent stock about the 14th century. Their history is enveloped in obscurity. According to local tradition, they settled on the banks of the Narbadá in the 11th century. Párás Rám, the 15th in ascent from the present chief, opposed the advance of the imperial armies on Málwá, and was carried away prisoner to Delhi, where he consented to embrace Muhammadanism, on condition of his being permitted to return to his ancestral State. On his return, he retired into seclusion, and was succeeded by his son Bhim Singh, who erected a Muhammadan tomb over his father's remains, which may be seen to this day, at Awasgarh.

Scattered remains of forts, towns, and irrigation works testify to the ancient prosperity of the State. From the beginning of the last century the power of the chiefs of Barwáni gradually declined. Their country, originally of considerable extent, was devastated by the Maráthás, and at length only a strip of the Sátpura range, 80 miles in length, with the lowlands on either side, remained to them. They did not, however, become tributary to any of the Málwá chiefs. In 1860, owing to the incapacity of the then chief (Jaswant Singh), the State was taken under British management, and so remained till 1873,

when it was restored to the chief on the understanding that his continuance in power would depend on his ability to administer his State rightly. Jaswant Singh died on the 15th of August 1880, and was succeeded by his brother Indarjít, the present ruler. Barwáni pays no tribute to, and receives no allowance from, the British Government. It pays Hali Rs. 4000 per annum towards the cost of the Málwá Bhíl Corps. The chief receives a salute of nine guns, and holds the title of Ráná. The whole State is intersected by the Sátpura range, and parts of it are so malarious that even the Bhíls cannot live there with impunity. The forest tract of 984 square miles in the State contains excellent timber, and yields a revenue of about £1300 yearly. Large game abounds. There are three main lines of road within the State, also 12 schools attended by 450 pupils. Chief town, Barwáni.

Barwáni.—Chief town of the State of the same name under the Central India Agency, situated 2 miles from the south or left bank of the Narbadá. It is surrounded by a double wall, with a ditch to the outer one. Population (1881) 5581. There are some Jain temples on the Bawangaja Hill, distant about 5 miles from the town, and a fair is held in January in connection with these temples.

Barwar.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh. Lat. 27° 50′ N., long. 80° 24′ E.; population (1881) 3683, namely, Hindus, 2654, and Muhammadans, 1029. Situated on an open, fertile plain, surrounded by groves and highly cultivated fields. Remains of a brick fort, built by Nawáb Mukhtadar Khán; 4 mosques; and 1 Hindu temple. Manufacture of sugar.

Barwa Ságar.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; distant 12 miles from Jhánsi, on the Nowgong (Naugáon) road. Lat. 25° 22′ 35″ N., long. 78° 46′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 6315, namely, 6027 Hindus, 204 Muhammadans, and 84 Jains. Area of town site, 134 acres. A small municipal revenue is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The town is picturesquely situated at the foot of a rocky ridge on the shore of the Barwa Ságar Lake, an artificial sheet of water formed by a masonry embankment three-quarters of a mile in length, and containing two craggy, wooded islets. Flights of steps lead down from the embankment to the water's edge. Below, a tract of land, extending over 4 miles, is thickly planted with mango and other trees, often of great age and enormous size. The work was constructed by Udit Singh, Rájá of Orchha, between 1705 and 1737. Irrigation canals, several miles in length, have been excavated from the edge of the lake, but are now of little use owing to leakage. North-west of the town rises a fine old castle overlooking the lake, also built by Udit Singh, now used as a *dák* bungalow or travellers' rest-house. Its last occupant was the celebrated Rání of Jhánsi. Three miles west stand

the remains of an old Chandel temple, built of solid blocks of stone, carved with the figures of Hindu gods, much defaced by Musalmáns. The town consists of three divisions, separated by stretches of cultivated land, and the houses are prettily embosomed in foliage. First-class police station, post-office, staging bungalow. Income under Act xx. of 1856, £60 in 1881; incidence of taxation, 2¼d. per head.

Basáhari.—Town in Khurái *tahsíl*, Ságar District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2059, namely, Hindus, 1929; Muhammadans, 50; and Jains, 80.

Basantar.—Stream in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; fed by numerous hill torrents, and itself falling into the Rávi a few miles east of the Ben. Carries a large volume of water in the rains; much used for purposes of irrigation.

Basantiá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; on the Bhairab river, 12 miles east of Jessor town. Lat. 23° 8′ N., long. 89° 24′ E. Being the nearest point to Jessor to which boats of large size can come, it may be said to serve as a port to that town, with a considerable trade in sugar, and in the import of rice. Much country traffic is also carried on by road between Basantiá and Jessor.

Basantpur.—Trading village at the confluence of the Kálindí and Jamuná rivers, on the northern boundary of Khulná District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 27′ 30″ N., long. 89° 2′ 15″ E. Being the point of convergence of the two great boat routes between Calcutta and Eastern Bengal (known as the Inner and Outer Sundarban Passage), it is an important trading place, and does much business with the Eastern Districts, principally in paddy. All boats put in here for provisions and fresh water, and also for repairs. There is good anchorage for country craft of any burthen.

Basantpur.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 1′ N., long. 85° 7′ E.; population (1881) 5107, namely, 4774 Hindus and 333 Muhammadans. Area, 2646 acres. The village is close to the main road leading from Lálganj to Sáhibganj. A little to the north of it is the Kewalpurá outwork of the Saryá indigo factory.

Baserá (or *Baseda*).—Village in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; 11 miles from Muzaffarnagar town. Population (1881) 3868, chiefly Játs. The village is tolerably well kept, and the villagers—agriculturists—are generally prosperous. Good well-water found 33 feet below surface.

Bashahr.—One of the Punjab Hill States, lying between 31° 6′ 30″ and 32° 4′ 30″ N. lat., and between 77° 32′ 15″ and 79° 2′ 30″ E. long.; area, 3320 square miles. Population (1881) 64,345, namely, Hindus, 63,924; Muhammadans, 365; Jains, 33; Christians, 22; and Buddhist, 1. Number of occupied houses, 8533. Average density of population, 19 per square mile; estimated revenue, £4000, excluding assignments

of land revenue. Between 1803 and 1815, Bashahr was held in subjection by the conquering Gurkhás. On the overthrow of the Gurkhá power in 1815, the British Government confirmed the Rájá of Bashahr, by a *sanad*, in possession of all his territories, except Rawain, which was transferred to Keunthál, subject to the payment of £1500 per annum. In 1847, the tribute was reduced to £394, as compensation for the abolition of transit duties. The present Rájá, Shamsher Singh, succeeded in 1849. He traces back his descent for 120 generations. The family are Rájputs. The Rájá is required to furnish troops in aid of the British Government in time of war, and labour for the construction of roads in the Bashahr territory. Sentences of death require confirmation; other punishments are awarded by the Rájá on his own authority.

Bási.—Town in Amírgarh *tahsíl*, Patiálá State, Punjab. Population (1881) 12,896, namely, Muhammadans, 8623; Hindus, 3735; and Sikhs, 538. Number of occupied houses, 3129.

Bási.—Town in Kalsia State, Punjab. Population (1881) 4907, namely, Muhammadans, 2224; Hindus, 2205; Sikhs, 333; Jains, 145. Number of occupied houses, 839.

Básim (*Wásim*).—District of Berár, in the West Berár Division, under the jurisdiction of the Resident at Haidarábád in the Deccan; lying between 19° 26′ and 20° 31′ N. lat., and between 76° 39′ and 78° 7′ E. long.; extreme length from north-west to south-east, about 96 miles; average width, 30 miles. Bounded on the north by Akola and Amráoti Districts; on the south by the Pengangá river and the Nizám's Dominions; on the east by Wún District; and on the west by Buldáná District. Area, 2958 square miles, of which 1797 square miles were returned in 1880-81 as cultivated, 177 square miles as cultivable, and 984 square miles as uncultivable waste. Population in 1881, 358,883, or 121·3 per square mile of area. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 950. Land revenue (1881) £59,356; total revenue (gross) £71,283. The District is sub-divided into three *táluks* for fiscal purposes, viz. Básim, Mangrúl, and Pusád. The ancient town of BASIM is the administrative head-quarters of the District, and also of the *táluk* of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—Básim, the more westerly of the three *táluks* of the District, is a rich table-land about 1000 feet above sea-level; Mangrúl, the north-eastern, and Pusád, the south-eastern *táluk*, are mainly a succession of low hills covered with poor grass. The soil of the hollows between the hills is usually of the best quality. Many of the hill peaks rise to a height of 2000 feet. Iron ore is plentiful throughout the high lands; and along the ranges of the Pusád *táluk* stretch wide slopes of woodland containing many patches of young teak, almost all shoots from stumps of old trees, about 12 inches in girth 6 feet from the

ground, and about 20 feet high. No valuable timber now exists. The best is to be found between the Pús and the Pengangá rivers. The area of reserved forests in 1880–81 was 48 square miles, and of unreserved forests 459 square miles. Several of the forest trees yield gums, dyes, and medicines, and the jungles supply abundant fuel. The mango, the *mahuá*, and other fruit trees are found in all the village lands except those of the western *parganás*. The two principal rivers are the Pús and the Káta Púrna, mountain streams which rise close to each other at the village of Káta, north of Básim town. The Pús flowing south falls into the Pengangá after a course of about 64 miles. The Káta Púrna flowing north enters Akola District near Mhán, after forcing its way through a deep gorge. Other insignificant streams are the Adan, the Kúch, the Adol. and the Chandra-Bágha, the last three falling into the Pengangá. The old military road between Jálna and Nágpur intersects the District from south-west to north-east. The larger wild animals are tigers, leopards, bears, wild hog, several varieties of deer; small game abounds.

History.—The only materials for the early history of the District are such as may possibly be found on further examination of the Jain and Buddhist sculptured temples of Sirpur and Pusád, etc. According to historic tradition, the Jains were in power immediately before the Muhammadan invasion of Alá-ud-dín, A.D. 1294, who subjugated Ellichpur and its dependencies, in which Básim was included. Thenceforward, though with intervals of partially regained independence, the country continued subject to Muhammadan rule till 1596, when Berár was ceded to Prince Murád on behalf of his father, Akbar, by Chand Sultána, regent for her son. The condition of affairs calling for Akbar's presence, he personally visited the Deccan in 1599, and consolidated his conquests by making Berár an Imperial governorship, of which Básim formed a *Sarkár* (Division). It does not appear to have been the scene of any remarkable event influencing the fortunes of its rulers.

The hills north of the Pengangá are inhabited by Hatkárs—*Bargi Dhangars*, or 'the shepherds with the spears.' These men, in 1600, held sway in the country round Básim, and are described as a 'refractory and perfidious' race. They were, in truth, clans under highland chiefs, who owned little more than nominal allegiance to the lowland rulers, whether Hindu or Muhammadan; and thus they continued till the introduction of British rule. After the death of Akbar, the Mughal Emperors maintained their authority with more or less vigour till about 1670, when the Maráthá forays became frequent. In 1671, Pratáp Ráo, a general of Sivají, plundered as far east as Karinjá, just beyond the north-east corner of Básim District, and first exacted from the village officers a pledge to pay *chauth*. After the death of Aurangzeb, *chauth* and *sardesh mukhi*

were formally granted (1717) to the Maráthás by Farukh Siyyar. In 1724, Chin Khilich Khán, viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, gained a crowning victory over the Imperial forces, which gave him the supremacy in the Province, which he and his descendants thereafter held in part ownership with the Maráthás, who took 60 per cent. of the revenue when they could. In 1795, the Maráthás compelled the acceptance of onerous terms of accommodation entailing large cessions of territory, of which Umárkhed in Básim District was a portion, and a cash payment of £3,000,000. That portion of the Berár made over to the Nizám by the partition treaty of 1804, included Básim, which was plundered by Pindárís in 1809. The Náiks of the District, too, had become breakers instead of guardians of the peace, and in 1819 Nowsáji Naík Muski gave battle to the Nizám's regular troops under Major Pitman before Umárkhed. He was driven into his stronghold, Nowa (garrisoned by 500 Arabs), which was carried by assault after a gallant defence, and Nowsáji Naik was sent to Haidarábád, where he died.

By the treaty of 1822, between the British and the Nizám, Umárkhed *parganá*, which had belonged to the Peshwá, was transferred to the Nizám. The administration of Haidarábád State for many years of this century had fallen into great disorder, and the British Government had to advance the pay of the contingent maintained in accordance with the treaty of 1800, although they had other unsatisfied claims against the Nizám. To meet these difficulties, the treaty of 1853 was concluded, whereby the Districts (of which Básim is one) now known as Berár were assigned to the British. This treaty has been modified by a second treaty in 1860–61. In 1859, a band of plundering Rohillás was pursued by a detachment of the Haidarábád Contingent into the village of Chichamba, near Risod, in Básim *táluk*, where behind walls they resisted an assault by the fatigued troops, in which Captain Mackinnon was killed.

Population.—The Census of 1881 showed a population of 358,883, and an area of 2958 square miles. Of the total population, 185,071 were males and 173,812 females; average density, 121·3 per square mile; number of Hindus, 335,647; Muhammadans, 19,715; Sikhs, 51; Jains, 3362; Christians, 107; Pársí, 1. Classified according to caste, there were 7239 Bráhmans and 1763 Rájputs; of other Hindu castes there were 330,007, including 120,310 Kunbís and 21,739 non-Hindu or aboriginal castes or tribes; the agricultural population numbered 227,308; the non-agricultural, 131,575; number of houses, 58,412. The Hatkars (*Bargi Dhangars*), who inhabit (speaking generally) the hills on the north bank of the Pengangá, are independent in bearing, and of fine physique, closely resembling each other—a fact which may be accounted for by the constant and exclusive intermarriage of their three great

families. They do not allow the hair on the face to be cut. If a male Hatkar die of wounds received in battle or the chase, his corpse is burned with his feet to the east, otherwise he is buried sitting cross-legged with a small piece of gold in the mouth. Women who die in childbirth are burned, others are buried. Widows can contract a *pát* marriage; a man can only have one *lagan*, but several *pát* wives. Hatkárs will not eat the flesh of the cow or the pig. Their god is called Khandoba. The Naiks of this District are principally Hatkárs. Their power was broken by Brigadier Sutherland, under whose orders offenders failing to surrender themselves by a given date were hanged.

The principal towns are — Básim, population (1881) 11,576; Umárkhed, 5959; Púsad, 5047; and Mangrúl Pír, 4900.

Agriculture.—The staple crops are cotton and *joár* (great millet), neither of which requires much rain. The cotton is all *banni*, or the best and earliest kind. Considerable quantities of coarse rice are grown on unirrigated land, which has to be manured for the crop. Good land does not require a thorough ploughing more than once every seventh year, inferior land every third year. In the Básim *táluk* the autumn crops are estimated to cover $\frac{9}{16}$ of the cultivated area—the spring crops, $\frac{7}{16}$; the estimate for the Púsad *táluk* is, for autumn, $\frac{3}{4}$, and spring, $\frac{1}{4}$. The country about Mangrúl Pír and Pusád formerly supplied the Haidarábád Contingent with horses; but since Arab horses have been substituted, the stock has not been kept up, and at present there are not 100 horses in the District fit for troopers. The traffic of the District, chiefly cotton and grain, is carried on ordinary carts, pack-bullocks, buffaloes, and camels to the cotton emporiums on the railway. In 1880–81, 1,150,091 acres were under cultivation. The most important crops were *joár*, 385,691 acres; *bájrá*, 3084; linseed, 17,642; *tur*, 27,042; pulses, 6187; *kurdi*, 12,071; cotton, 235,383; wheat, 179,254; gram, 41,774; *til*, 15,384; hemp or flax, 2295; castor-oil plant, 1862; sugar-cane, 1491; rice, 10,141; tobacco, 2711; lac, 25,355; and other products, 108,538. The average produce per acre in pounds is, for cotton, 108; for wheat, 634; oil-seeds, 169; *joár*, 478; tobacco, 198; rice, 488; and gram, 366. The uncertainty of reaching water at all, or of its being fit for use if reached, renders the construction of wells hazardous and costly. There are about 4000 wells in the District, of which nearly half are out of repair. Under Muhammadan rule, the revenue was generally farmed out, and all proprietary rights were vested in the sovereign, though no doubt minor prescriptive privileges were acknowledged. The Bombay system of survey and settlement has now been introduced into Berár. It confers absolute proprietary rights on the registered revenue-payer, on certain conditions; and the assessment is only subject to enhancement after the expiry of the agreed term, and not then unless upon

good reason shown. During the rule of the Peshwá, extravagant life-grants were made to Bráhmans and Pandits, many of whom contrived to get them transmitted to heirs. Rent rates—the average rate for land suited for cotton is 1s. per acre; for wheat land, 1s. 3d.; for *joár*, 1s.; opium, 7s.; rice, 4s.; gram, 1s. 6d. The wage of skilled labour is from 1s. 6d to 2s. per day; of unskilled labour, 6d. Prices in 1880–81 were—for clean cotton, 2½ *sers* per rupee, or 2½ lbs. for a shilling; wheat, 35 *sers*; gram, 36 *sers*; *joár*, 51 *sers*; common rice, 11 *sers*; oil-seeds, 17 *sers*; and tobacco, 2½ *sers*. A plough bullock costs £4; a sheep, 4s. The agricultural stock of the District in 1880–81 comprised 280,098 cows and bullocks, 51,995 buffaloes, 195 horses, 7725 ponies, 1655 donkeys, 49,580 sheep and goats, 125 pigs, 140 camels, 6262 carts, and 28,332 ploughs.

Manufactures and Trade.—The chief manufactures of the District are coarse cotton cloth, blankets, and a little paper. The principal exports are cotton and wheat, which go to Bombay; gums, dyes, and forest produce are sent to Hingoli. There are four outposts in the District at which trade registration is undertaken, viz. at Rájgáon, Risod, Mulámá, and Umárkhed; these outposts are maintained at an annual cost of £100. The value of imports registered in 1880–81, through these posts, amounted to £115,658; exports, to £54,280. The chief trading towns are Básim and Umárkhed; the principal fairs are held at Risod, Sirpur, Malegáon, Púsad, Umárkhed, Tálegáon, and Negardás. There are in the District 293 miles of made road.

Administration.—The total area assessed in 1881 was 1,263,034 acres, of which 1,150,991 were under cultivation, 112,943 cultivable, 180,628 grazing land, and 446,811 uncultivable waste. Sixty-three villages held under the Waste Land Rules, with an area of 147,717 acres, yield a revenue of £875.

The District is administered by a Deputy-Commissioner, with whom are associated assistants, European and Native. There are 3 revenue Sub-divisions. *Dakáiti* and robbery have much decreased under British rule. There is one small receiving jail, from which persons are transferred to the central jail at Akola; daily average of inmates, 74·17; expenditure per head of average strength, £8, 17s. Of the total number of convicts, 67 were Hindus, 24 Muhammadans. The Muhammadans, who are only as 1 to 18 of the Hindu population, are as 1 to 4 of the convicts. The sanctioned strength of police in 1880–81 was 67 officers and 324 men, giving an average of 1 policeman to every 7·5 square miles of area. There were in 1880–81, 86 Government and aided schools, with 2814 pupils; and a central book depôt, with two branches, one at Púsad, the other at Mangrúl. The only municipality is Básim town; population within municipal limits,

11,576; receipts for 1880-81, £262; expenditure, £384; incidence of municipal taxation per head of population, 5½d.

Meteorological Aspects.—The climate of Básim is preferred to that of the other Districts in Berar; the hot wind which blows during the day in the summer months is succeeded at night by a cool breeze. Highest shade temperature at Básim in May, 104° F.; lowest in December, 63°; rainfall for 1881, 37·87 inches, which was 1½ inches above the average—over 32 inches fell from June to September. The principal diseases are fevers, bowel complaints, and cholera. The number of deaths registered in 1880 from all causes was 6464. Ratio of deaths per 1000 of population, 18·0. The number of births registered in 1880 was 10,652; ratio per 1000 of population, 29·7. Two Government dispensaries and one civil hospital afforded medical relief in 1880 to 9600 patients; 9355 persons were vaccinated by the vaccine department or at the civil dispensaries. [For further information regarding Básim District, see the *Berár Gazetteer*, edited by Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B., C.S. (Bombay, 1870); the *Census Report for Berár* for 1881; and the *Administration Reports of the Haidarábád Assigned Districts* for 1880 to 1882.]

Básim.—*Táluk* of Básim District, Berár. Area, 1051 square miles; contains 1 town and 321 villages. Population (1881) 157,690, namely, 81,565 males and 76,125 females, or 150·03 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 145,857; Muhammadans, 7891; Jains, 1830; Sikhs, 18; Christians, 93; Parsi, 1. Area occupied by cultivators, 543,943 acres.

Básim.—Town in Berár, head-quarters of the District and *táluk* of the same name. Lat. 20° 6′ 45″ N., long. 77° 11″ E.; height above sea level, 1758 feet; population (1881) within municipal limits, 11,576, namely, 6015 males and 5561 females. Of the total population, 8685 were returned as Hindus, 2485 as Musalmáns, 317 as Jains, 79 as Christians, 9 Sikhs, and 1 Pársí. Area of town site, 568 acres. The town is distant 52 miles south-south-east from Akola, on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and 29 miles north from the military station of Hingoli; good metalled roads connect it with both these places. It is said to be a very old town, founded by Wachh, a Rishi, and originally named after him *Wachh Gulin.* A legend tells of a king, Wasúki, afflicted with leprosy, who was cured by bathing in a pool outside the town, which he enlarged to a tank, known as Padma Tírtha, still largely resorted to for bathing in. It is said to petrify articles exposed to its action. The Desmukhs of Básim, in the 17th century, received large grants of land and perquisites from the Mughal Emperor, and the family have always been of some consideration in South Berár. After the Bhonsla ruler at Nágpur ceased to receive a share ($\frac{4}{10}$) of the revenue, the Nizám stationed

troops and established a mint at Básim. The most striking buildings are the temple and tank of Bálaji, constructed about 100 years ago by Bhawáni Kálu, a general of the Bhonslas. The town has a post-office, police station, and two good Government schools. Municipal revenue (1880–81) £262; expenditure, £384; incidence of municipal taxation, 5½d. per head of population.

Básinakonda. — A rock in the Madanapalli *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; height, 660 feet above the town of Madanapalli, or 2800 feet above sea level. On the summit stands a pagoda to Vekatashaswámí, who is supposed to have placed one foot here while travelling to the sacred pagoda at Tripatti, the other foot resting on Gandikót.

Basi Tang (or *Taung*).—Mountain range in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. Principal peak, Basi tang (21° 31′ N. lat., and 92° 29′ E. long.); height, 2181 feet. The hills are very steep, thickly covered with jungle, and uninhabited.

Baskhárí.—Town in Faizábád District, Oudh; 9 miles west of Birhar, and 50 miles south-east of Faizábád. Founded by a famous Muhammadan saint, named Makhdum Ashraf, about 1388 A.D., and still in the possession of his descendants. Population (1881) 2471, namely, Hindus 1808, and Muhammadans 663; 3 mosques and 3 Hindu temples; police station; Government school.

Básoda.—Native State in the Bhopál Agency, under the agent to the Governor-General for Central India; originally a feudatory of Sindhia. In 1817 it was seized by Sindhia, but was restored by order of the British Government, and all connection with Gwalior has since ceased. It pays no tribute, and is now directly under the British Government. The capital of the State is in lat. 23° 50′ 50″ N., and long. 77° 55′ E. The chief bears the title of Nawáb, and is a Pathán by descent. Area, 22 square miles; population (1881) 7722, distributed in 19 villages, and occupying 1362 houses; density, 353 persons per square mile; revenue, £1000. The military force consists of 3 guns, 8 artillerymen, 12 *sowárs*, and 60 policemen.

Basohli.—Tract of country and town in Kashmír State, Punjab; situated on the Rávi river, at the foot of the southern Himálayan chain. The town, which lies in lat. 32° 33′ N., and long. 75° 28′ E., contains a large irregular *bázár*, and a handsome palace of the Rájá, moated and turreted like a mediæval castle. The Rájás of Basohli were formerly independent, but were subjugated by the Sikhs in 1726 A.D.

Basorhi.—*Parganá* in Bára Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Daryábád, on the south by Mawai Maholára, and on the west by the Kalyáni river. Area, 34 square miles, of which 25 are cultivated, the principal crops being rice, wheat, and barley. Population (1881) 21,374.

Básrá.—Village on the Bidyádharí river, in the Twenty-four Parganás, Sundarbans, Bengal, and a station on the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway; 20 miles from Calcutta, and 8 from Port Canning. Lat. 22° 22′ N., long. 88° 37′ E. Important depôt of the timber trade of the Sundarbans, and the scene of a weekly market (*hát*), at which rice and stores of all kinds are sold. It was here that the celebrated *fakír*, Mubárak Ghází, who overawed the wild beasts and rode through the jungles on a tiger, settled while the place was yet in the heart of the forest. In the Revenue Surveyor's report of the District, it is stated that 'altars to Mubárak Ghází are common in every village in the vicinity of the jungles adjoining the Sundarbans, and wood-cutters never enter the jungle without invoking Mubárak Ghází's protection against wild beasts. A number of *fakírs*, who call themselves descendants of Mubárak Ghází, gain their livelihood by the offerings made on these altars by wood-cutters and boatmen. The custom is for the *fakír* to go to the spot where the wood is to be cut, and remain there three days without food, during which time Mubárak Ghází appears to him in a dream, marking out the precincts within which wood can be cut, by lopping branches from the trees. Prayers and offerings are then made, and the wood-cutters warned not to go beyond the boundary marked out. When the boat is filled, offerings are again made, and one or two rupees are given to the *fakír*. It is strange enough that these wood-cutters are very seldom carried off by the tigers which everywhere infest the jungles; they go in without fear, the hatchet required to hew the timber being their only weapon and means of defence.'

Basrúr (*Abu-sarúr* of Ibn Batuta, *Bracelor*, *Básilor*).—Town in the Kúndápur *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 40′ N., long 75° 10′ E.; population (1881) 1570; houses, 326. Now almost deserted, but once a large walled town with a fort and temple, and mentioned as an important trading place by all the Arabian geographers. The walls and water-gates still remain in good preservation. *See* BARKALUR.

Bassein.—Sub-division of Thánà District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 221 square miles, with 2 towns and 90 villages, and 10,934 occupied houses; population (1881) 68,967, namely, Hindus, 51,918; Muhammadans, 2292; 'others,' 14,757. This Sub-division, which lies in the west of the District, is formed of a portion of the mainland and territory which was once known as the island of Bassein, but is now no longer so, the narrow creek which divided the island from the mainland having silted up. The present Sub-division is 14 miles in breadth and about 17 in length, with the exception of two small hills, about 200 feet high, on the island portion; the surface here is flat, with a rich soil, yielding crops of rice, plantain, sugar-cane, and *pán*. On the mainland portion are the Tungár and Káman hills, both over 2000

feet in height, the last-named known as Bassein Peak or Kámandrúg, being 2160 feet above sea level. On the coast the climate is generally pleasant and equable: inland the heat is great, and in the rains much fever prevails.

Bassein (*Wasái*).—Chief town of the Sub-division of Bassein in Thána District, Bombay Presidency; about 5 miles from the Bassein Road Station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, and 28 miles north of Bombay. Lat. 19° 20′ 20″ N., long. 72° 51′ 20″ E.; population (1882) 10,357, namely, Hindus, 6850; Muhammadans, 836; Jains, 5; Christians, 2623; Jains, 14; and 'others,' 29. Area of town site, 1926 acres. Municipal income (1880–81), £714; rate of taxation, 1s. 4½d. per head of the population within municipal limits; municipal expenditure in same year, £663. In 1880–81 the total value of the sea trade of Bassein, exclusive of Government stores, was £102,329, of which £28,257 represented the value of imports, and £74,072 that of exports. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Bassein early attracted the notice of the Portuguese, as the river or strait separating the island from the mainland was a convenient rendezvous for shipping. In 1534, Bassein, with the land in its neighbourhood, was ceded to them by Bahádur Sháh, King of Guzerát, and two years later the fort was built. For more than two centuries Bassein remained in the hands of the Portuguese, and during this time it rose to such prosperity that the city came to be called the Court of the North, and its nobles were proverbial for their wealth and magnificence. With plentiful supplies of both timber and stone, Bassein was adorned by many noble buildings, including a cathedral, 5 convents, 13 churches, and an asylum for orphans. The dwellings of the Hidalgos, or aristocracy, who alone were allowed to live within the city walls, are described (1675) as stately buildings, two storeys high, graced with covered balconies and large windows. Towards the end of the 17th century Bassein suffered severely from outbreaks of the plague, so deadly that in 1695 one-third of the population was swept away.

Notwithstanding the decay of Portuguese power in the 17th century, Bassein, as late as 1720, would seem to have retained much of its prosperity. In that year, the population is returned at 60,499 souls, and the revenue a few years later (1729) at as much as £45,706. (Xer. 914,125.) But the wealth of one city was unable to stay the advance of the Maráthá power. In 1739, Chimnájí Apá, a distinguished Maráthá general, at the head of a powerful army, appeared before Bassein. After a siege of three months, conducted on both sides with the greatest skill and courage, the garrison was forced to capitulate, and the town and District of Bassein passed into the hands of the Peshwá. Under the Maráthás, Bassein became the chief place in their territories between the Bánkot river and Damán; but

they did not long keep possession of the city. In 1780, after a siege of twelve days, Bassein was captured by a British army, under the command of General Goddard. By the treaty of Salbai (1782) it was restored to the Maráthás; and in 1818, on the overthrow and deposition of the last of the Peshwás, it was resumed by the English and incorporated with Thánná District of the Bombay Presidency.

Of old Bassein, the walls and ramparts remain in a state of good preservation. Within the enclosure, the ruins of the cathedral of the Dominican convent, of the Jesuit Church of St. Paul, and of St. Anthony's Church, built as early as 1537, can still be identified.—(*See* Dr. Da Cunha's *Antiquities of Bassein.* Bombay, 1876.)

Here was concluded, in 1802, the treaty by which the Peshwá agreed to maintain a British subsidiary force, thus virtually dissolving the Maráthá confederacy.

Bassein.—District in Pegu Division, British Burma, lying between 15° 45′ and 17° 45′ N. lat., and between 94° 15′ and 95° 28′ E. long.; area, 7047 square miles; population in 1881, 389,419 souls. Bounded on the north by Henzada District lying east, and Sandoway west of the Arakan Hills; on the south and west by the Bay of Bengal; and on the east by Thongwa (Thun-Khwa) and a network of creeks. The head-quarters of the District are at Bassein town, situated on the river of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—Bassein District is in shape an irregular parallelogram, extending northwards from the Bay of Bengal, and divided into two very unequal parts by the Arakan hills. The western portion forms a narrow mountainous strip; the eastern is a stretch of alluvial land traversed by three large branches of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), which flow nearly parallel to one another into the sea. Of this tract, the northern and largest portion as far south as Ngapútaw is well watered and very fertile; the southern portion consists of cultivated plains and large wastes of forest, gradually merging into low marshy ground, cut up into numerous islands by the network of tidal creeks uniting the mouths of the Irawadi. The coast-line stretches from the mouth of the Gwa river in about lat. 17° 34′ N., and long. 94° 37′ E., for 110 miles in a south-westerly direction to Cape Negrais; thence it inclines south by east for 9 miles to Pagoda Point, the southern extremity of the Arakan Hills. In parts, the coast-line consists of a gently shelving sandy beach, backed by undulating forest land; beyond Cape Negrais, where the hills enter the sea abruptly, forming a bold and rugged escarpment, the coast is rocky. From Mawdin westwards, stretches a flat beach, bordered with grassy plains, which end in mangrove swamps, intersected in every direction by tidal inlets. The chief rivers are—the Pyamalaw, with its two mouths, the Pyamalaw and the Pyinthalú; the Rwe, with the small Daye-bhyú mouth; and the Bassein, with the Thekkay-thaung

mouth. The Pyamalaw leaves the Kyúnpat at Shwe-laung, and flows for some distance north-west and west before it turns to the sea. The Rwe river is formed by the junction of several creeks. All these are almost entirely dependent upon the Irawadi and on the tide for their water supply. The BASSEIN river, though it leaves the Irawadi some miles above Henzada and is connected with it farther south by many streamlets, receives much of its water from the eastern slopes of the Arakan Hills, and is the only mouth used by large sea-going vessels ascending as far as Bassein town. The whole country south of 17° N. lat., except to the west of the Arakan Yoma hills, and in their immediate neighbourhood on the east, consists of groups of islands formed by innumerable creeks and bifurcations, some of which are navigable by steamers, some only by canoes. The principal hills are the Arakan mountains, across which are several passes only practicable in dry weather. The most northern pass, which is entirely in this District, is the Bhawmí, from the junction of the Tsalú and Bhawmí streams to Thit-nan-kú on the Thien. The highest point is only 70 feet above the sea. Farther south there are two passes by the Chaung-tha and Sien-ma rivers; the crest of the first is 381, and of the second 284 feet above sea level.

The character and resources of the forests are not well known. There are large tracts of mangrove and evergreen forest. The chief timber trees are *pyin-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *sha* (Acacia catechu), *taung pín* (Artocarpus sp.), *thitka* (Quercus semiserrata). The quantity of teak found is small. A considerable area east of Ngapútaw on the Bassein river, and a tract of country stretching northward from Bassein town, consist of laterite beds, covered to some depth by sandy deposits. A remarkable patch of calcareous sandstone occurs on the west coast of the District; the nummulitic or eocene group of rocks is well developed. In the south these have been termed the 'Negrais' beds. In some places, flaggy and massive sandstone abounds, in others, sections are exposed of highly altered shales and sandstones, and occasionally the sandstone is seen converted into a flinty rock. All these beds are internally silicified. These rocks have a peculiar greenish hue, which towards the north changes into a bluish tinge. Subordinate to the sandstone stratum an irregular bed of conglomerate occurs, but it forms a marked bed in one place only, viz. near Ywut-pa. It is here that the 'mud volcano' of the charts is situated; but it has no connection with volcanic action properly so called, and neither lava, ashes, nor volcanic rocks are seen about it. In appearance it is a low mound, and is now considered as the 'vent for a very feeble discharge of marsh gas.' In the southern portion of the Arakan range, limestone occurs in extensive masses. In some parts above this, there is an intensely hard ferruginous bed of conglomerate, characterized by

numerous quartz pebbles. Soapstone is found in the Arakan Hills, chiefly on their eastern slopes. Most of the lime used in the District is procured from a locality a few miles below Ngapútaw on the Bassein river. The quantity is inexhaustible, the quality good, and access easy.

History. — Little is known of the early history of the District. Ptolemy, in his sketch of the hydrography of India beyond the Ganges, says: 'From the range of Mæandrus flow down all the rivers beyond Ganges, until you come to the river Besynga.' This Besynga has been identified with the Bassein branch of the Irawadi, and the Mons Mæandrus with Yoma-daung, the range forming the backbone of Arakan. In old Talaing histories the '32 cities of Bassein' are mentioned in 625 A.D. as forming part of the kingdom of Pegu. About 1250 A.D. the Talaing princess, Um-madan-dí, ascended the throne; but a few years later Bassein was conquered by the Burmese. In 1289 A.D., according to Talaing history, Bassein again passed to Pegu. When Razadhírit, the greatest monarch of the Talaing dynasty, became king (1383 A.D.), Lauk-bya, Governor of Myaung-mya, proposed to assist the Burmese in conquering Pegu; and the acceptance of his offer led to incessant warfare between the two kingdoms. In 1686 the Governor of Madras determined to establish a settlement in Negrais, then considered a portion of Arakan; but the first expedition proved unsuccessful. In 1687, however, Negrais was taken possession of in the name of the East India Company, but no settlement was made there until 1753. At this time the war between the Burmese and Peguans, which ended in the complete subjugation of the latter, was at its climax. Both Burma and Pegu sought British aid, which was refused impartially; subsequently, it was urged that we should side with the Burmese, as the Talaings had succeeded in obtaining the assistance of our rivals the French, who then had a settlement at Syriam below Rangoon.

The King of Burma sent ambassadors to Negrais, who were escorted from Bassein by Captain Baker, then in charge of the British factory in that town. Soon after this (1775), a mission was despatched to the Burmese King, in order to obtain a formal grant of Negrais and the site of the Bassein factory, as it was considered that the whole country had passed to the Burmese monarchy. Unfortunately, about this time the British ships near Rangoon had been forced to aid the Talaings; and the Burmese King could not forgive this treachery, as he considered it. The English authorities insisted on absolute neutrality, but their local agents were in consequence suspected by both sovereigns. In 1757, a cession of Negrais and of ground at Bassein was obtained in perpetuity, as it was thought. In 1759, the Negrais establishment was withdrawn, and only a few persons were left in charge of the island and of the Company's property.

Captain Southey, their superintendent, landed on 5th October 1759; and on the 7th, when all the Europeans were assembled to meet the Burmese authorities, they were treacherously attacked and murdered, only one making his escape. In 1760, a mission was sent to obtain redress, but it was of no avail, and the Burmese King absolutely prohibited our return to Negrais.

From this date until the first Burmese war, the British Government took no further steps towards forming a settlement in the District. During that war, Bassein town was captured and retained until the evacuation of Pegu, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Yandabú. During the second Burmese war the town was again taken by our troops, and has remained in the possession of the British ever since. During the time of the annexation of Pegu, the whole of Bassein District was a prey to anarchy; the British troops were kept within the limits of the seaport towns and frontier stations, and in the interior numerous bandit chiefs set up independent authority, claiming to be officers of the Burmese King deputed to regain the country. A kind of civil war began; in one instance animosity was carried so far against the English, that the villages on the banks of the Irawadi which had supplied our steamers with fuel were destroyed. The great object of the British at this crisis was to rid the country of these gangs, to afford protection to its inhabitants, and restore their confidence in British rule. In January 1853, Captain Fytche, the Deputy Commissioner, succeeded in dispersing a force which had kept the whole country in the south and south-east in a state of terror. He first attacked a gang on Negrais island, and afterwards followed it up northwards into the Shwelaung township, destroying its three chief stations. Later a rebel band, under Mangyí Maung Nywúng, the former governor of Bassein, was utterly routed, and its leader slain. By the beginning of March 1853, the lower tracts were freed from the large marauding parties which had hitherto occupied them, and only straggling bands of robbers remained.

In January 1854 fresh disturbances broke out. Two men named Shwe Tú and Kyaw Zan Hla, aided by a Buddhist priest, assembled a number of desperate characters from the borders of the District, and succeeded in seizing the large towns of Dounggyí, Ngathaing-Chaung, and Regyí. The outbreak was speedily crushed by the rapid and decisive action of Major Fytche, who with a small military force of Europeans and 400 Native troops, aided by detachments under Major Baker and Lieutenant Shuldham, completely defeated the insurgents, whose leaders were either killed or captured. From this time there has been no serious endeavour to expel the British, and the District has enjoyed comparative rest.

Population, etc.—By the Census of 1872, but allowing for changes

of area, the population was returned at 270,200 souls, and by that of 1881 at 389,419, showing an increase during nine years of 119,219. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 4851; Muhammadans, 4925; Christians, 21,324; Buddhists, 337,317; Nát or spirit worshippers, 20,967; Brahmos, 24; Jews, 7; and Parsís, 4. Total number of towns and villages, 1699, or an average of ·18 to each square mile; number of occupied houses, 69,812, with an average of 5·57 inhabitants to each. Average density of the population, 55·26 per square mile. Classified according to race, there were—Burmese, 275,544; Arakanese, 1909; Chins, 807; Karens, 96,008; Karennís, 2; Toungthus, 12; Talaings, 3948; Sháns, 1225; Manipurís, 31; Chinese, 744; Malays, 8; Bengalís and Hindustánís, 6358; Uriyás, 88; Persians, 9; Europeans, 845. Here, as elsewhere throughout the Province, except in Kyauk-pyú and Tavoy, the males outnumber the females. In 1881 there were 202,949 of the former to 186,470 of the latter. This disproportion is caused by immigration from Madras, Chittagong, China, etc. The immigrants bring no wives with them, but marry Burmese women, whom they leave behind on their return to their own country. In former years, the Talaings mustered strongly; but the conquest by the Burmese King, Alaungpayá, and the cruelty exercised towards them by their rulers, whom they had irritated by siding with the English during the first Burmese war, drove many into exile, and more than decimated the number of those who could not escape. The Karengs in this District differ only from those living in the hills of Tenasserim by having adopted the Burmese mode of cultivation. The Shans are settlers from the north; many of the Muhammadans, and the majority of Hindus, are mere sojourners in quest of money to be spent in their own land. The Chins live chiefly in the hills to the north-west, the tribe stretching far away into Upper Burma and Arakan. (*See* ARAKAN HILL TRACTS.) The principal occupations of the inhabitants are agriculture, carried on in the large plains of the District, and fishing along the sea-coast and in the numerous ponds, rivers, and tidal creeks in the south.

The number of towns and villages in 1881 was 1699. The most important are—BASSEIN, the head-quarters station, and one of the chief ports of the Province, on the Bassein river, 75 miles from the sea (population in 1881, 28,147); Lemyet-hna, lat. 17° 35′ N., long. 95° 13′ 30″ E., on the banks of the Bassein river (population in 1881, 5355); Myaung-mya, lat. 16° 35′ N., and long. 95° E., situated on the banks of the river of the same name (population in 1881, 2315); Ngapútaw, lat. 16° 32′ N., and long. 94° 46′ E., on an island of the same name in the Bassein river, built on the side of a low range of hills (population in 1881, 928); and Regyí Pandaw, lat. 17° 19′ 30″ N., and long. 15° 10′ E., on a creek of the same name, composed of the once separate

towns of Yegyí and Pandaw, and the seat of an important rice trade (population in 1881, 2640),—it was here that the Talaing army made its last stand before its complete defeat by Alaungpayá. Ngathaing-Khyoung, lat. 17° 22′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 8′ 30″ E., is on the Bassein river; its population in 1881 was 3557, chiefly engaged in an extensive rice trade with Bassein; for some years it was garrisoned by a detachment of Native Infantry from Bassein, but is now guarded by a police force. Kyúnpyaw, lat. 17° 17′ N., long. 95° 16′ E., on the Daga river at the southern entrance of the Yegyí creek; had a population in 1881 of 895, employed in agriculture, trading, and fishing. The 1699 towns and villages in 1881 are thus classified—1061 with less than two hundred inhabitants; 560 with from two to five hundred; 64 with from five hundred to a thousand; 9 with from one thousand to two thousand; 2 from two to three thousand; 1 with from three to five thousand; and 1 with over twenty thousand inhabitants.

Agriculture, etc.—In 1855–56, the area under cultivation was 134,520 acres; in 1864–65 this had risen to 186,129, in 1874–75 to 305,902, and in 1881 to 393,400 acres. The area under different crops in 1880 was as follows:—Rice, 369,952 acres; oil-seeds, 5; sugar, 170; cotton, 49; betel leaf, 373; vegetables, fruit-trees, etc., 9433 acres. The staple product is rice, and the average out-turn reaches $14\frac{2}{7}$ cwts. per acre. In 1881–82, the gross produce was 295,393 tons. Sesamum and tobacco are cultivated to a small extent. The yield of cotton averages 83 lbs. per acre. The agricultural stock, notwithstanding the transfer of two large townships, has increased largely of late years. In 1869–70, the number of cows, bulls, and bullocks was 33,746; of buffaloes, 78,108; sheep and goats, 1281; pigs, 23,464; carts, 14,074; ploughs, 23,253. By 1882, the number of cows, bulls, and bullocks had increased to 77,415; of buffaloes, to 63,629; of sheep and goats, to 1995; of pigs, to 29,265; of carts, to 22,797; ploughs, 29,894. The number of boats has decreased from 12,623 to 10,710. Rates of rent for the different descriptions of land, suited to the various crops, were returned as follows in 1880–81:—Rice, 3s. 4d. an acre; oil-seeds, 3s. $1\frac{1}{2}$d.; sugar-cane, 4s.; cotton, 3s. $1\frac{1}{2}$d.; cocoa-nuts, 1s. 6d.; *dháni*, 2s. 9d.; *taungya*, or hill cultivations, 1s. $7\frac{3}{4}$d.; mixed fruits, 4s. $7\frac{1}{2}$d.; vegetables, 4s. 6d.; and plantains, 3s. 6d. an acre. The average size of a holding is about 15 acres—a larger area than is held farther north. Hired labourers are rarely employed; their wages vary from about 16s. with board to £1 without board. As a rule, proprietors cultivate their own land, and renting is not common. The produce of the District can easily be transported by the tidal creeks, the natural means of communication, which also irrigate and fertilize the country. Annually, on the rise of the Irawadi, large tracts of country are flooded, and the crops are often destroyed. In order to protect the rice land

small embankments were formerly raised by the inhabitants, but these were too slight and too much localized to be of any permanent benefit. Since 1865, large embankments have been, and still are being, made by the State along the banks of the Irawadi, and one along the left bank of the Bassein from its northern mouth is complete beyond Ngathaing-Chaung.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal manufactures of the District are salt, *ngapí* or salt-fish, and pottery—the first two mainly on the sea-coast in the Ngapútaw and Myaung-mya townships, and the last in the Bassein, Myaung-mya, and Yegyi townships. Several saline plains occur within a distance of 8 or 10 miles from the sea-coast, and in the alluvial delta; and wherever these are in the vicinity of creeks, salt is prepared by means of solar evaporation and boiling. The pots in which it is boiled contain about 4½ gallons of brine each, and at every evaporation yield about 7 lbs. of salt. The salt manufacture is carried on for about four months, and the average produce of one pot during the season is 1350 lbs. The salt is sold on the spot for the preparation of salt fish and *ngapí*. The expenditure during a season for a boiling place of 200 pots is about £188, and the value of the salt made, £250—net profit, £62. Several kinds of *ngapí* are manufactured, of which *dameng* is the most important. It is made on the sea-coast, and consists of a mixture of all kinds of fish and prawns, which, as they are caught in the traps, are thrown *en masse* on to a raised platform made of bamboo, and left there for about eight hours for the water to drain off. By this time decomposition has generally set in; the whole mass is then thickly sprinkled with salt, and crushed and mixed together by hand, when it is ready for market. About 4700 lbs. of salt are required for 100 baskets of *ngapí*. Large pots and other kinds of heavy glazed pottery are made at Thit-nyogún, near Bassein town. In a single season—*i.e.* from January to April—two men can turn out 1000 pots of sizes, generally sold to traders on the spot at prices varying from £12 to £13.

Commerce.—The trade of Bassein District has enormously increased since the British occupation, as the following figures (repeated in more detail in the article on BASSEIN TOWN) show:—Total value of exports from Bassein harbour in 1855–56, £52,543; imports, £24,300; tonnage of vessels cleared, 2847 tons. In 1865–66—value of exports, £289,965; imports, £32,876; tonnage, 42,163. In 1876–77—value of exports, £503,468; imports, £44,764; tonnage, 81,297 tons. In 1880–81, the exports amounted to £1,010,574, and the imports to £71,635, in value, exclusive of treasure. Communication is carried on almost entirely by water, and the country requires few roads. In the dry season cart tracks lead from village to village, and during the rains a boat can pass almost everywhere. Total length of inland water com-

munication, 387 miles. The postal communications are—(1) a monthly service by the British India Steam Navigation Company between Chittagong and Penang, the steamers calling at Akyab, Kyauk-pyú, Sandoway, Bassein, etc.; (2) a service twice a week by the steamers of the Irawadi Flotilla Company between Rangoon and Bassein; (3) a service, maintained out of the District *dák* portion of the Five-per-cent. Cess Fund, three times a month between Bassein and Ngathaing-Khyaung. There is one newspaper published in the District, at the Bassein town press.

Revenue, etc. — The actual revenue of the District prior to its annexation cannot be accurately ascertained. From local records found in the various offices, it appears that the annual revenue furnished by Bassein, as it existed in Burmese times, was—(1) house and family tax (Burmese and Kareng), £12,273; (2) yoke of oxen, or rice land tax, £3598; (3) fisheries, £9203; (4) salt, £1338; (5) transit dues, £1838: total, £28,250. Adding two-thirds for the share of the local officers, the amount paid by the inhabitants was at least £47,080. In 1855–56, the first year in which the revenue returns can be depended upon, the amount realized was £61,791. This was derived from taxes on land, fisheries, salt, forest produce, port dues, excise, capitation fees, etc. In 1855–56, the area under cultivation (exclusive of *taungya*, or hill clearings) was 134,520 acres, the land revenue being £21,222, and the rate of taxation 3s. 1½d. per acre. In 1875–76, the number of acres under tillage rose to 264,320, the income from land to £43,732, and the average rent per acre to 3s. 3d. By 1880–81, the total land revenue had increased to £77,861, and the cultivated area to 393,400 acres; average incidence, 3s. 11d. per acre. Under the Burmese, the total demand for the capitation tax was ordered annually by the governor of the District, the assessment per circle being left to the Akhwon-wún, and the assessment per house to the discretion of the Thú-gyí. Under English rule each married man pays 10s., and each bachelor between eighteen and sixty (except priests, cripples, etc.), 5s. In 1855–56, the yield of this tax was £19,465; in 1876–77, £30,530; and in 1881–82, £34,887. In 1876–77, the amount realized by the fishery tax was £10,898, and in 1881–82, £17,220. The proceeds of the salt tax are decreasing yearly owing to the importation of cheaper foreign salt. In 1855, the price per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 13 annas, or 2s. 3d. per cwt.; in 1881–82 it was 10½ annas, or 1s. 10d. per cwt. The excise revenue yielded in 1855–56, £5539; in 1876–77, £12,789; and in 1881–82, £31,224. The gross Imperial and Provincial revenue in 1881–82 was £261,719, as compared with £166,646 in 1876–77, and £107,189 in 1867–68. The expenditure in 1881–82 was £39,214, as compared with £19,673 in 1876–77, and £13,926 in 1867–68. The Local revenue raised in the District in 1876–77 over and above the Imperial and Provincial

revenue, excluding the port and dispensary funds and the municipal revenue of Bassein town, was £6005.

Administration.—On the annexation of Pegu, Bassein District was formed out of the Bassein governorship of Burmese times, but there was added to it a seaboard strip of country, a portion of Sandoway, which extended west of the Arakan Hills to about lat. 18° N. The northern part of this tract was afterwards reunited to Sandoway. In 1875, the Shwe-loung and Pantanaw townships, in the extreme east of the District, were taken away. Up to 1853, the country was in a very disturbed state, and the civil officers, aided occasionally by a few troops from the Bassein garrison, were continually engaged in dispersing large gangs of armed marauders. The Deputy-Commissioner was in consequence empowered to punish with death all persons convicted of complicity in rebellion, and a police force was raised of a total strength of 546 men. In 1861, the police battalion was disbanded; and a regular force for the whole Province, under an inspector-general and District superintendents, was organized. In 1876, the regular police force in Bassein numbered 331 of all ranks, besides a municipal or town police of 114 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £10,741, of which £8579 was payable from imperial revenues, and £2162 from municipal or local funds. Bassein District is divided into 8 townships, and these again into revenue circles—Yegyí, 12; Sam-bey-rún, 8; Thabaung, 14; Bassein, 8, including Bassein town; Ngapútaw, 11; Thí-kwin, 10; Myaung-mya, 9. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy-Commissioner, Assistant-Commissioners, and subordinates. About 1855, the head-quarters of the District were transferred from Bassein to Dalhousie, so called in honour of the Governor-General to whom was due the annexation of Pegu. Situated near the mouth of the Bassein river, and admirably adapted as a port of call, being placed at the natural outlet of a vast tract of fertile country, it was hoped that Dalhousie would become an important town. In 1856–57, however, the whole site was submerged by a sudden rise of the sea consequent on a cyclone, and in the same year the head-quarters were re-transferred to Bassein, the present station. The new District jail was completed in 1868 at a cost of £17,260; there is accommodation for 405 male and 16 female prisoners. In 1855, the daily average number of prisoners of all classes was 317. The average in 1880–81 was: convicted prisoners, 383 males, 7 females—total, 390; under trial, 8; debtors, excise prisoners, and revenue defaulters, 8: total of all classes, 406. In 1860, a Kareng normal and industrial school was opened by the American Baptist missionaries, at which, in 1881, the average daily attendance of boys and girls was 193. The Baptist Mission have also established village schools, a normal school at Bassein, a school for Burmese, etc., all of which are

aided by the State. The Roman Catholic community have also established a good school in Bassein town, as well as a girls' school, with an average attendance of 84 pupils. In 1874, Government established a middle-class school. The number of pupils on March 31, 1881, was 192. At the cess school in Ngathaing-Chaung the fees are 1s. per month for boys, and 6d. for girls. Primary education is in the hands of Buddhist monks, and the schools of those monks who will allow it, are examined yearly. The total number of inspected schools in 1880–81 was 368, of which 2 were Government, 4 Mission schools, and 368 indigenous village schools. Total number of pupils, 8630. This is exclusive of uninspected schools, for which no details are available. The Census Report of 1881, however, returned 17,642 boys and 1833 girls as under instruction in that year, besides 81,097 males and 3292 females able to read and write, but not under instruction; proportion of educated males, 48·65 per cent. of the male population; ditto of females, 2·75 per cent. of the female population.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Bassein is relaxing, owing to the situation of the District in the delta of the Irawadi, with the country around intersected by tidal creeks, the muddy banks of which are exposed during the greater part of the day. In 1881–82, the total rainfall was 112·20 inches. Cholera and fever are reported to be endemic, whilst bowel complaints, dropsy, and rheumatism are common. Small-pox is much spread by inoculation. [For further information regarding Bassein, see the article in the *British Burma Gazetteer* (Rangoon, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 84–112; the *British Burma Census Report* of 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bassein.—Township on the left bank of the Bassein river, in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the north the ground is undulating, but the country to the south is flat, and highly cultivated with rice. The town of Bassein lies in the west centre. In 1881 the population numbered 48,367; the gross revenue was £11,983.

Bassein. — Town, head-quarters station, and chief port of Bassein District, British Burma; situated in the delta of the Irawadi, on both banks of the Bassein river. Lat. 16° 46′ N., long. 94° 48′ 10″ E. Population in 1876, 22,417. In 1881 it had risen to 28,147, consisting of 19,848 Buddhists, 3781 Hindus, 3362 Muhammadans, 1122 Christians, and 34 'others.' Municipal revenue in 1881–82, £1285; expenditure, £1207. On the left bank of the river, in the Ze-Chaung quarter, is the Shwe Mú-htaw Pagoda. This now forms the centre of the English fort, in which are also the court-houses, treasury, and police office. The other quarters of the town on the left bank are Athegyí, Myothit, and Talaing-Chaung. The small Theng-bhaw-gyeng suburb, containing the rice mills and store yards of the principal merchants,

stands on the right bank. To the east of Myothit stretches a plain covered with pagodas, monasteries, and colossal images in every stage of decay, where the feasts and religious assemblies of the inhabitants are held.

The Trade of the port has rapidly progressed under British rule. During the years immediately preceding the annexation of Pegu, a few small vessels visited Bassein, taking away cutch, stick lac, lead, and timber, to foreign and Indian ports. The export of rice was prohibited by the native Government; but the Burmese Collector of Customs, who owned a few vessels, contrived to export small quantities to the Straits, receiving in return *beche de mer* and other produce. In 1853-54, the value of the imports into Bassein was returned at £20,892, and the exports at £6922; total, £27,814. Five years later, in 1858-59, the imports amounted to £36,378, and the exports to £152,783; total, £189,161. Up till 1860, the imports consisted mainly of betel-nuts, gunny-bags, and tobacco from inter-provincial ports; and also gunny-bags, cotton piece-goods, and tobacco, almost entirely from Indian ports. The first cargo of rice for foreign ports was made in April 1854, when a ship-load was despatched to the United States. This trade rapidly increased, and the port steadily advanced in prosperity. Between 1862-63 and 1881-82 the imports increased from £16,480 to £79,137 in value; and the exports from £102,108 to £958,560. The total value of the trade increased from £118,588 in 1862-63 to £1,037,697 in 1881-82, or by nine-fold. In the earlier years of British administration, the imports consisted chiefly of betel-nuts, gunny-bags, raw tobacco, and cotton piece-goods. To these have since been added salt, coal, machinery, hardware, provisions, wines, etc. The inter-provincial sea-borne trade has almost entirely disappeared, owing to greater facilities of communication afforded by numerous creeks between Rangoon and Bassein. In 1861-62, the value of the inter-provincial sea-borne trade was £24,178; in 1881-82 it had fallen to £4062. The character of the export trade is also changed, and is now almost entirely confined to the export of rice and a little timber. In 1881-82, out of a total export trade valued at £958,560, no less than £956,348 represented the value of the rice exports. In 1880-81, the total value of exports was £1,010,574, of which rice represented £1,007,826; total value of imports, exclusive of treasure, £71,635; tonnage of vessels cleared, 100,056. The following description of the busy scene in the harbour is taken from the Blue Book on the Trade of British India, 1872-73 to 1876-77 (published in 1878):—

'The rice season here resembles in its aspects the rice season elsewhere in Burma—creeks crowded with boats laden with paddy, mills at work from morning to night, the surface of the river and creeks covered inches thick with paddy husks, and shipping busily taking in

the cleaned rice from the mills. These rice mills are a feature in the ports of Burma. There is nothing like them in continental India (except at Port Canning, and there the mills are a failure), where the rice is husked in the interior of the Districts by the family of the cultivator before it is sent to the market for disposal. In Burma, the cultivator is too well-to-do to care about undertaking the trouble of husking the rice, and he leaves that to be done by the European purchaser at the port of shipment. The mills are worked by powerful machinery moved by steam; and the coal which is required by them forms the main article of import from foreign countries into Akyab and Bassein, the latter port importing also a certain quantity of salt. Bassein is supplied with all her other imports from Rangoon in river steamers, which ply twice a week through the narrow tidal creeks, lined with mangrove jungle, which form the Burmese Sundarbans between Rangoon and Bassein. These steamers belong to the Irawadi Flotilla Company, and are specially constructed for the service. Light as they are in draught, in the dry weather they often stick fast in the mud for hours together. The steamers do a very large trade in the carriage of passengers and cargo between Rangoon and Bassein, but no record of the actual value of the trade has as yet been attempted.'

Within the last few years telegraphic communication has been established between Bassein and Rangoon, and it is proposed to extend the line to the mouth of the river, where ships call for orders. In 1881–82, the municipal revenue of the town was £12,859. Bassein was utterly depopulated in the time of Alaungpayá (Alompra), and no trustworthy records of its early history exist. It is said to have been founded in 1249 A.D. by Umtmadani, a Talaing princess. From the natural advantages of its site, it has always been a harbour of considerable importance, and is alluded to as 'Cosmin' by Ralph Fitch and other travellers, who found Rangoon a small village. 'Cosmin' is a corruption of Kusimanagara. The place was an important seaport as early as the 12th century. During the first Burmese war, the occupation of the town by the British was unopposed, the Burmese governor having set fire to it and retreated to Le-myet-hna. The population gradually returned, and the place was not abandoned till the conclusion of war, when the troops were withdrawn. During the second Burmese war, Bassein was finally taken by assault. The town has a charitable dispensary and two hospitals, one for Europeans and one for natives. A new hospital was built a few years ago. The total number of patients treated in 1876 was 3461, of whom 264, including 10 Europeans, were in-patients.

Bassein.—River in Irawadi Division, British Burma; the most westerly of the main channels by which the Irawadi reaches the sea. Its northern entrance, about 9 miles above Henzada town, is in the dry

season completely closed by a sand-bar; but steamers ply between Bassein and Henzada all the year round, entering the Bassein river by the Thambayadaing, which leaves the Irawadi some 12 miles above Henzada, and joins the Bassein near Chaukywa. Flowing south-west, the Daga leaves it 3 miles from the main stream of the Irawadi, to rejoin it again a few miles farther on. After their reunion, the Panmawadi and other large tidal creeks connect the Bassein by innumerable smaller channels with the other mouths of the Irawadi, and after a tortuous course of 200 miles, it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Pagoda Point. The banks of the river are for the most part low, muddy, and covered with jungle; in some portions of its course the country is hilly, and the river is studded with rocks and islands. Haing-gyí, or Negrais Island, lies at its mouth. Two channels, one on each side of it, lead into the river; the western forms a good harbour, the eastern is rendered dangerous by a reef of rocks projecting from Púrian nearly to Diamond Island, facing the mouth of the river; 75 miles up the river is BASSEIN TOWN, the head-quarters of the District of the same name.

Bastar.—Feudatory State attached to Chándá District, Central Provinces, lying between 17° 46′ and 20° 37′ N. lat., and 80° 18′ and 82° 21′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Ráipur District; on the south by the Sironchá Sub-division of Chándá District; on the east by the Bendrá Nawágarh estate in Ráipur, and the Jáipur State; and on the west partly by the Ahíri estate, and partly by Sironchá Sub-division. Population (1881) 196,248 souls; area, 13,062 square miles. The Rájá resides at Jagdalpur, which is also the principal town.

The extreme length of Bastar is about 170 miles, its breadth about 120 miles. In the centre and north-west, the country is very mountainous; on the east extends a table-land nearly 2000 feet above sea level, yielding rich crops wherever it is cultivated; while ranges of sandstone hills diversify the south. These ranges all run north-west and south-east. As each ends, generally in a steep declivity, another begins from 5 to 15 miles to the south, and runs in a parallel direction, till in like manner a third line succeeds. Few springs rise in these hills; great boulders of vitrified sandstone strew their surface, and glitter in the sun with a pinkish hue. Another range, known as the Belá Dílá ('Bullock's Hump'), from a particular elevation near Dantiwárá resembling a bullock's hump, crosses the centre of the dependency, increasing in height as it runs due southward, till it culminates in two lofty peaks, called Nandiráj and Pitur Rání, between 3000 and 4000 feet above sea level, and forming a portion of the Eastern Gháts. The soil through the greater part of Bastar consists of a light clay with an admixture of sand, well adapted to the raising of rice, but requiring a good supply of water. The Indravatí, the Sabárí, and the Tál or Tálper, the only important rivers, all fall into

the Godávari. Iron ore of good quality is reported to abound, but it is little worked, as the demand is insignificant.

The Census of 1881 returned the total population of Bastar State at 196,248, spread over an area of 13,062 square miles, and inhabiting 2204 villages, and 38,271 houses; average density of population, 15 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·17; houses per square mile, 2·93; persons per house, 5·13. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 103,046, and females, 93,202. According to religion, there were—Hindus, 159,123; Muhammadans, 779; Kabírpanthís, 3; Sikhs, 2; and aboriginal tribes still following their primitive faiths, 36,341. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes is the Gonds, locally known as Máriás and Bhathrás, and a scattering of Bhíls. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans are few in number; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Dhers or Mhars, Malís or Maráis, Kunbís, Ahírs or Gaulis, and Kallars, and other cultivating or inferior castes. The numbers for each caste and tribe are not given separately in the Census Report. The Bráhmans for the most part dwell in and around Jagdalpur. They all eat fish and goat's flesh, and will drink water from the hands of the Gáhiras, or cowherds. A caste known as Dhákars are the illegitimate offspring of Bráhmans, and wear the sacred thread. A practice formerly existed in Bastar and the neighbouring State of Jaipur of bestowing the sacred thread as a reward for good service, or of selling it to persons of certain castes. The Halbás or Halwás, a cultivating clan of the Gond tribe, who also wear the sacred thread, occupy the more level and cultivated tracts, principally in the northern part of the State. The Gadwás or Gadbás, corresponding to the Kols of Rájmahal, who are found towards the east, subsist by cultivation and by labour. A Gadwá woman dresses in a singular fashion; taking a cloth, 3 feet by 6, made from the bark of the *karing* tree, with broad horizontal bands of red, yellow, and blue, she passes it round her waist, brings it across the shoulder, and then fastens it down before the bosom. Next she secures this cloth with a girdle composed of not less than 40 separate cords about 20 inches long, with the ends bound together and worn in front. She crowns her hair with a chaplet of the large white seeds of the *kusa* grass, often twisted with strings of beads; large earrings of brass wire hang from the upper cartilage of each ear down to the shoulder, while an earring resembling a brass button decorates the lobe of the ear. On festivals, both men and women dance to a fife and drum, and sometimes a man and a woman will step out of the crowd and sing alternately impromptu verses of uncouth raillery. It is in Bastar that the Gonds may be studied to most advantage. A detailed account of them will be found under the headings CENTRAL PROVINCES and GONDS. The principal of the Gond clans, other than those enumerated above, are

the Máriás and Márís, uncivilised and timid people inhabiting the deepest recesses of the jungle. A description of them and of the other Gond clans will be found under their respective alphabetical headings.

Throughout the State, Danteswárí or Máuli (who is identified with Bhawání or Káli), and Mátá Deví, are objects of universal worship. The higher castes also adore the well-known deities of the Hindu Pantheon. Danteswárí, however, must be regarded as the tutelary divinity of the Rájás, and generally of the Bastar dependency. It was under her guardianship that the reigning family left Hindustán and dwelt at Warangul; and when the Muhammadans drove them out of the kingdom of Telingáná, it was she who directed and accompanied their flight as far as Dantiwárá, where she took up her abode. Her temple stands at the confluence of the Sankháni and Dankání rivers, and within the temple enclosure the hereditary Pujarí, or priest, has his residence. Here there is reason to believe that human sacrifices (*meriah*) were once practised; and for many years after 1842, a guard was placed over the temple, and the Rájá held personally responsible. At present most travellers offer a goat to the goddess when they pass her shrine. Some, too, consult her by placing flowers upon the head of her image. As the flowers fall to the right or the left, so her response is deemed favourable or the reverse. The idol is of black stone, generally dressed in a white muslin *sari*, and wearing ordinary female ornaments.

Jagdalpur, the capital, and residence of the Rájá, is the only town containing upwards of 1000 inhabitants (population 4294), and but 17 other places have a population exceeding 500; 170 villages contain from 200 to 500 inhabitants, and 2016 have fewer than 200.

Of the total area of 13,062 square miles, only 1000 are cultivated; of the portion lying waste, two-thirds are returned as cultivable. North of the Indrávatí river, the soil is the property of the State; and the land to the south of the river is nearly all composed of *zamíndárís* or estates of petty chiefs, who hold their lands under a service tenure subject to a light tribute to the Rájá, but liable to periodical enhancement. The largest of these *zamíndárís* are Bhupalpatnam (1170 square miles), Kutia (1072 square miles), and Biji (855 square miles). Rice constitutes the most important crop in Bastar; but oil-seeds, dyes, *ral*, *dammar*, *kosa*, lac, galls, and fibres are also produced. No cotton, and but a very small quantity of wheat and gram, are grown. Sugar-cane, of a superior quality, constitutes an important crop, and *gur* or crude sugar is exported to the sea-coast, and to Nágpur. One of the most important productions of Bastar consists of its horns and hides. The *gur*, wax, and honey must also be mentioned.

The State is almost destitute of manufactures. The weavers make a coarse kind of cloth; and a caste called Ghásiás carry on a business in Jagdalpur town, by working up brass pots out of the fragments of

old ones. Brass utensils are largely imported from Nágpur and Ráipur. All petty sales are effected by barter, or by *kaurís* or shells when procurable, 20 *kaurís* (cowries) making a *borí*, 12 *borís* a *dúgání*, and 12 *dúgánís* one rupee. The general system is for the Rájá to keep up granaries and storehouses, often receiving grain in part payment of the land tax, and retailing it with the other necessaries of life to his own establishments and travellers. Iron ore of good quality abounds on the Belá Dílá, and in the valley of the river Jorívág, but in consequence of the small demand is hardly ever worked. Salt, piece-goods, spices, and opium are imported from the coast by way of Jaipur, Sunkam, and Kaller; grain, wheat, and paper from Ráipur; and in the western parts, cloth, tobacco, and opium from the Nizám's Dominions. But though the situation of the State is favourable for traffic, and the configuration of the country and the nature of the soil would facilitate the construction of highways, not a single made road exists in Bastar. The Baryára line from the south of Ráipur is expected to assume considerable importance, passing as it does through a portion of Bastar, and thence through the Ahírí *zamíndárís* and the Sironchá *táluk* to a point where it branches into two lines, running respectively to the large stations on the south-east coast and to Haidarábád. By this route, wheat is already exported in large quantities from Chhattísgarh. The State has no navigable river.

The estimated gross revenue of Bastar amounted, in 1881, to £9213, and the tribute to £305. Transit duties are imposed on goods entering or passing through the State, but arrangements are now (1882) being made with a view to their total abolition. The Rájá's military force consisted of 4 gunners, 12 horsemen, 50 sepoys, and 400 retainers armed with swords, and 3 small cannon. Rájá Bháiram Deo claims to be a Rájput. The family follow primogeniture, but have no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In 1882, the Rájá's heir was his nephew. Education is at a low standard in the State.

The chief cause of mortality in Bastar is fever, which prevails especially from September to November, commonly accompanied with dysentery and diarrhœa. At rare intervals cholera appears, but seldom extends beyond the larger villages on the more frequented routes. On the other hand, small-pox is common, and the dread it inspires appears from the numerous temples dedicated to Mátá Deví. The patient, into whose body the goddess is deemed to have entered, is treated with scrupulous regard. As soon as the disease shows itself, his feet are washed with cow's milk, and carefully wiped upon the head of his nearest relative; Mátá Deví is then prayed to take under her special protection the family whom she has honoured with a visit; the patient is placed upon a bed of fresh rice-straw, with a screen around him; his

friends constantly repair to the temple of Mátá Deví, and anoint her image with ground sandal-wood and water, with which they then sprinkle the house where the patient lies, and sign his forehead; his diet consists of fruit and cooling food and drink, but no medicines are administered. Vaccination is unknown; inoculation, however, is practised to some extent. Rheumatism affects many of the inhabitants, and hydrocele is exceedingly common.

Basti.—District of the Benares Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, lying between 26° 24′ 45″ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 82° 17′ and 83° 15′ E. long.; area, 2752 square miles; population (1881) 1,630,612 souls, or 592 to the square mile.

Physical Aspects.—Basti is a sub-montane tract lying between the Nepál Hills and the Gogra (Ghágra) river, and presents the flat, marshy aspect typical of *tarái* land. The territory of Nepál bounds it on the north; Gorakhpur District of the North-Western Provinces on the east; and the Faizábád and Gonda Districts of Oudh on the south and west. It has a mean height of only 326 feet above sea level, and no natural elevations of any description diversify its surface. Numerous rivers and lakes keep the soil charged with moisture; and in the rainy season every depression fills, forming a temporary lake, till dried up by the sun. The general line of drainage is to the south-east. At one time, tree jungle covered a large proportion of the District; but during the last forty years 150 square miles of waste land have been granted to Europeans, but a considerable portion of this has not been brought under cultivation. There are no ravines, and but little *úsar* (saltpetre) land, so that of the whole area, two-thirds, or 1,169,925 acres, are actually productive; and of the other third, 330,042 acres are cultivable, though not yet under the plough. No waste land now remains at the disposal of Government.

The rivers Rápti and Kuána divide the District into three natural belts. The northern belt, lying between the Rápti and the hills, is pure *tarái* (sub-montane) land, reclaimed from the forests and marshes that originally covered it. Its breadth is from 14 to 20 miles throughout. The middle belt lies between the Rápti and the Kuána; and being drained by them, is less marshy, and suitable therefore to wheat and other cereals. The southern belt, lying between the Kuána and the Gogra, is much drier, artificial irrigation being in parts required for the ordinary cereals. It is from 12 to 28 miles in breadth. The mean breadth of the District is about 40 miles. The total length from north to south is 60 miles. The chief rivers are—the Rápti, the Burhi Rápti, Arrah, Bánganga, Masdih, Ami, Kuána, Kura, Kotnaiya, and the Gogra. The last forms throughout the southern boundary of the District, separating it from Faizábád. It is a river of great volume, in

places from 2 to 3 miles in width, and, owing to the force of its current and the softness of the soil, very destructive by its encroachments on the adjoining land. The Gogra and the Rápti are the only rivers navigable throughout the year by boats of 25 tons burthen. The other streams are only partially navigable in the rainy season. The largest of the lakes are the Bakhirá or Badanah, 5 miles by 2, and perennial; the Pathra, 3 miles by 2; the Chaur and the Chandu Táls. They all abound in water-fowl, and for the sport they afford, the Rájá of Bánsi preserves the Pathra and Chaur. In its natural productions Basti has nothing worthy of special note. The only mineral found is *kankar* (an imperfect limestone), used for road-mending; in the river-beds shells are found in sufficient quantities for the manufacture of lime. The District is well wooded, the trees being those common to the North-Western Provinces generally. The mammals are insignificant, the larger carnivora being almost unrepresented. Spotted deer are found near the Gonda border. Black buck (antelope) are very rare. Hog deer are found in the trans-Rápti belt, and *nílgai* all over the District. Birds, especially water-fowl, are exceedingly abundant, and ot countless species. Fish abound in all the rivers and lakes, and form an important item in the food supply of the people.

History.—Basti has no history of its own. Until 1801, it remained uneventfully a jungle-grown and outlying tract of the Sirkár of Gorakhpur, in the Subah of Oudh; and from the cession till 1865 it formed part of the British District of Gorakhpur. Its early history, therefore, belongs to Oudh, its later to GORAKHPUR, and since 1865 no events of any public importance have marked its administration.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the population of Basti District at 1,473,029. The last Census in 1881 showed a population of 1,630,612, or an increase of 157,583 (10·67 per cent.) in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 824,251, and the female 806,361; proportion of males in total population, 50·54 per cent. Area of District, 2752·8 square miles; number of towns and villages, 7295; number of occupied houses, 268,159. Average density of population, 592 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·6; houses per square mile, 97·4; inmates per house, 6·07. Classified according to religion, the Hindus in 1881 numbered 1,378,416, or 84·53 per cent. of the District population; and the Muhammadans, 252,108, or 15·46 per cent. There were also 78 Christians, 9 Sikhs, and 1 Jew. The Muhammadans, divided according to sect, consisted of 250,265 Sunnís and 1843 Shiás. The Christian population comprised 52 Europeans, 1 Eurasian, and 25 natives. The number of Bráhmans was 183,842; and of Rájputs, 47,511—the higher castes therefore aggregating 231,353, or 14·5 per cent. of the total population; the Baniyás numbered 51,591; and the Káyasths, 33,542; of Ahírs there were

176,298; of Chamárs, 220,785; of Kúrmís, 123,206—the three latter castes aggregated, therefore, 520,289, or 32 per cent. of the whole. The other numerous castes in the District were—Kachís, 49,622; Kahárs, 38,097; Mallás, 35,477; Kumbhárs, 31,961; Telis, 29,194; Dhobís, 28,430; Soniás, 28,085; Barhais, 26,600; Tambulís, 21,497; Lohárs, 19,732; Nais, 19,952; Pasís, 20,521; Lodhís, 21,076; Bhars, 18,556; Bhurjís, 18,364; Bhuinhárs, 9977; Gadariás, 9225; and Sonárs, 8251. The villages and towns in the District in 1881 were 7295 in number; and of these 4447 contained fewer than two hundred inhabitants, 2303 under five hundred, 433 under a thousand, 93 under two thousand, 10 under three thousand, 6 under five thousand, 2 under ten thousand, and 1 under fifteen thousand inhabitants.

There are no large towns in the District. BASTI with a population of 5536, MENDHAWAL with 11,592, and USKA with 5079 inhabitants, are the only three having more than 5000 inhabitants. The vast bulk of the total population is rural, being composed of the agricultural classes typical of the North-Western Provinces, and scattered uniformly over the District.

There are no organized trades-unions in the European sense of the word, but the influential caste *pancháyats*, or deliberative assemblies, answer a similar purpose, acting, however, in a much wider field than the ordinary craft leagues in the west of India. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other castes, regulate the customs of their trades by this system. As regards occupation, the Census returns the male population under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional class, including military and civil officers and all Government officials, with the learned professions, 7086; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1852; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6330; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 447,686; (5) manufacturing and artisan class, 31,462; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 15,945 general labourers, and 313,881 male children and unspecified), 329,835.

Agriculture.—The area of Basti is almost entirely under cultivation. In the north, the great expanse of alluvial land, still in parts submerged for half the year, grows rice luxuriantly, and over the rest of the District all the cereals common to the Province are cultivated. The agricultural population numbers 1,395,676, or 85·59 per cent. of the total population, and the area under cultivation aggregates 1,169,925 acres, or 62 per cent. of the total assessed acreage. Total amount of Government land revenue, including rates and cesses levied on the land, £156,746, or an average of 1s. 8½d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by the cultivators, including cesses, £348,659, or an average of 5s. 10½d. per cultivated acre. The soil is of three kinds, *doras* (loam), *bhar* or *bálua* (light, sandy soil), and *mátiar* (clay),—drier

in the southern than in the middle belt, and in the middle than in the northern. There are two harvests, the *kharíf* or autumn crop, and the *rabí*. The *kharíf* crops are sown in May or June, as soon as the first rain has fallen, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; cotton, of which very little is grown in the District, is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice, the *kharíf* crops include *joár*, locally known as *joudhri*, *moth*, etc. The *rabí* crops are mainly sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and peas, and *dál* or *arhar*.

From the minute sub-division of the land, and the absence of large towns, the population maintains its average density of 592 to the square mile throughout the District, and over nearly two-thirds of the villages the average of inhabitants is under 200. Of the houses, 99 per cent. are built of mud, and the average value of an ordinary agriculturist's personal effects is 10s. His annual expenditure is about £9, 7s. Rice and the cheaper grains form the staple of food, with, in some places, fish. As the cold is never severe, clothing and shelter do not cost so much as in many other Districts. Among Hindus, the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £90 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £20 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns the cost would be rather more, as their habits are more expensive.

The price of bullocks for agriculture ranges from £1 to £4, of buffaloes from 14s. to £3, and of cows from 10s. to £5. The rates of interest in force are—in small transactions, on the security of personal effects, from 10 to 12 per cent.; and on personal security only, from 16 to 37 per cent.: in large transactions, on the security of valuables, from 6 to 12 per cent.; on personal security (banker lending to banker), from 6 to 9 per cent.; and on the security of land, from 9 to 18 per cent. The rates of wages are as follows:—Coolies and unskilled town labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. a day; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. a day. Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men. The ordinary prices of the chief food grains average as follows:—Wheat, 20 lbs. for 1s.; rice, 15 lbs.; and *dál*, 26 lbs. Prices have been rather less affected in this District than in others more centrally situated, and nearer the main line of railway; but even in Basti they are rising steadily.

Land Tenures.—None of the District is permanently settled. The tenures of land are the usual *zamíndárí*, *pattídárí*, and *bhayáchárá*.

In the first case, the whole estate belongs to several owners in joint occupation, and is undivided. In the second, the estate has been divided into shares, which are separately held by their several owners; an imperfect form of *pattidári* is very frequent, in which both sets of conditions exist in the same estate. In the third case, though the estate may be virtually either *zamíndári* or *pattidári*, the rights of ownership are determined, not by the several ancestral shares of the coparceners, but by custom or possession.

Natural Calamities.—The famines experienced in Basti District up to 1865, the year of its establishment as a separate Collectorate, will be described in the article on GORAKHPUR. Since 1865 there has been one year of slight scarcity (1868-69), and two of severe scarcity, amounting almost to famine (1873-74 and 1877-78). In all these years the rainfall was deficient, in the latter so seriously as to cause a failure of both the autumn and spring crops, and in the scarcity of 1874 relief works were in operation till May. In the scarcity of 1877, only about one-fourth of the average rainfall fell between the 1st January and the 30th September, and a miserable *kharíf* harvest was followed by a poor *rabí* crop. By the end of June 1878, the average number of persons in receipt of daily relief was 63,908. Relief works were closed in October 1878, but the poorhouses were kept open till the middle of March 1879.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District consists to a great extent in the exchange of the cotton, cotton stuffs, and brass of Cawnpur and the Doáb Districts for the drugs, iron, copper, timber, and forest produce of Nepál. By far the most valuable part of Basti trade is in country produce, carried (1) south-eastwards down the principal streams in boats to Golá Gopálpur and Barhaj in Gorakhpur, for transit to Patná or Calcutta; or (2) carried south-westwards to Nawábganj in Gondá, and to Faizábád. The largest market in the District is that of Uska Bázár on the Kura. This place is the principal emporium of the Nepál trade in rice and mustard seed, and the seat of fibre manufactures. Large quantities of Basti-grown rice are also brought to this market. The only other trading town of any importance is Mendháwal, in the east of the District. Basti itself produces sugar, hides, saltpetre, charcoal, and coarse cloths; it imports cotton, timber, drugs, and iron. The spirit distilled from the petals of the *mahuá* tree forms a special item of local manufacture and consumption; the dried petals of the *mahuá* are also used as food for man and cattle. The only fairs of importance are those held at Maghar, Katesarnáth, Bharí, Sítárámpur, and Táura. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs for 40 miles along the southern border of the District; and from Faizábád and Akbarpar, two stations on this portion of the line, good roads run into the District. The other important roads are those from Basti and

Nepál *viâ* Bánsi, from Singarjot, on the Faizábád-Basti road, to Bhánpur, and to Mendháwal; from Basti to Domáriaganj; and from Uska Bázár to the junction of the Basti-Nepál road. Total length of roads, 568 miles. There are 26 post-offices in the District, but no telegraph office. Ferries cross the Rápti at Domáriaganj, Bharota, and Bánsi. The rivers Ami and Kuána are bridged. A bridge of boats is maintained across the Gogra at Ajodhya *ghát*.

Administration.—For the purposes of revenue collection, the District is divided into five *tahsíls*, viz. Domáriaganj, Bánsi, Haraia, Basti, and Khalilábád. The land revenue yielded in 1871-72, under the revised settlement, £133,097, being an increase during the nineteen years preceding of £45,230, or 51·5 per cent. In 1880-81, the land revenue (including cesses) amounted to £148,330, or an average of about 1s. 9¾d. per head of the population. The District local funds amounted in 1875 to £23,800. The latest Settlement of the District was commenced in 1859, and concluded in 1865. It expires in 1889. In revenue and police matters, Basti is controlled by the Commissioner of the Benares Division. The District staff consists of a Magistrate and Collector, who has generally an Assistant Magistrate and two Deputy Magistrates under him. There are also a superintendent of police, a sub-deputy opium agent and his assistant, and a civil surgeon. The judge of Gorakhpur presides over the civil administration; he has also criminal appellate powers. For administrative and fiscal purposes the District is divided into 5 *tahsíls* or sub-collectorates and 8 *parganás* with 8377 *mahals* or estates. The regular police force has a total strength of 422 officers and men. It is maintained at an annual cost of £6416, being equal to £2, 1s. per square mile, or about three-farthings per head of the population. In 1881 there were also 2009 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, paid in cash by the landholders and villagers, and costing £7248; besides 6546 *goraits*, really discharging the same duties as *chaukídárs*, but maintained by rent-free allotments of land. The District jail at Basti contained in 1881 a daily average of 305 prisoners—291 males and 14 females. The annual jail mortality averaged 1·31 per cent. The number of Government and grant-in-aid schools in the District in 1881 was 151, of which three were for girls, with a total daily average attendance of 4419 pupils, or one school to every 18·63 square miles, the pupils in the day schools being only ·52 per cent. of the male population. These figures are independent of indigenous village schools, which do not come under the supervision of the Education Department. The Census Report of 1881 returned 6723 boys and 121 girls as under instruction, besides 30,184 males and 456 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The District is on the whole an unhealthy one, for the excessive atmospheric humidity and the defective drainage combine

to make fevers prevalent. The average annual rainfall at Basti town for the fourteen years prior to 1880 was 46·63 inches. In 1881 the rainfall was 37·10 inches, or 9·53 inches below the average. The northern portion of the District, being immediately under the hills, experiences a heavier fall. The extreme ranges of temperature on record are from 71° F. in January to 105° in May 1871, and from 42° in January to 78° in June 1872. In normal years, the heat in summer is never very intense, nor the cold of the winter months severe, the dampness of the air tempering both extremes. The total number of deaths registered in 1880-81 was 48,841, or 30 per thousand. There are 4 dispensaries—at Basti, Birdpúr, Bánsi, and Mendháwal; and the patients admitted during 1881-82 numbered 26,276.

[For further information regarding Basti, see the Settlement Report of the District (1871) in the Gorakhpur-Basti Settlement Report, and the North-Western Provinces Government Resolution thereon (1873); the *North-Western Provinces Gazetteer*, vol. vi. pp. 552 to 730 (Allahábád, 1881); the *North-Western Provinces Census Report* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* for 1880 to 1883.]

Basti.—*Tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 543 square miles, of which 348 are cultivated; population (1881) 313,327; land revenue, £28,260; total revenue, £34,054; rental paid by cultivators, £67,354. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 6 criminal courts, including the court of an honorary magistrate; number of police stations (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 63 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 422.

Basti.—Town of Basti District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 48′ N., long. 82° 48′ E.; situated on the river Kuána, 40 miles distant from Faizábád, and 43 miles from Gorakhpúr; elevation above sea level, 291 feet. Population (1881) 5536, namely, Hindus 3832, and Muhammadans 1704; area, 115 acres. The town has no commercial importance, and the District head-quarters are situated three miles distant. Jail, post-office, dispensary, Government offices, *tahsíli* school; bridge across the river Kuána.

Basti Shekh.—The most important suburb of Jalandhar (Jullundur) town, Jalandhar District, Punjab, and forming a portion of Jalandhar municipality. Population (1881) 5355, namely, 2904 males and 2651 females. Founded 1617 A.D. by Shekh Darvesh.

Basurhát.—Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between lat. 21° 30′ 45″ and 22° 54′ N., and between long. 88° 36′ and 89° 9′ 15″ E.; area, 363 square miles; number of villages, 761; occupied houses, 50,633; population (1881) 323,061, namely, 166,136 Hindus, 156,731 Muhammadans, and 194 Christians; average density of population, 890 per square mile; villages per square mile,

2·10; houses per square mile, 144; persons per village, 424; persons per house, 6·38. The Sub-division consists of the *thánás* (police circles) of Baduriá, Basurhát, Haruá, and Husainábád. In 1883, it contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 154 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 603.

Basurhát.—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, the head-quarters of Basurhát Sub-division, and a municipality. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 88° 53′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 14,843, of whom 8995 were Hindus and 5848 Muhammadans; area of town site, 5520 acres; municipal income in 1881–82, £695.

Basva Patná.—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 12′ 5″ N., long. 75° 50′ 55″ E.; population (1881) 988. The residence of the founder of the Tarikere family of *pálegárs*, in the 16th century. Haidar Ali razed the fortifications, and the town was sacked by the Maráthás in 1791.

Baswa. —Town in the Shaikhawatí District of Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, about 120 miles north-west from Jaipur. Walled, and possesses a fort of some pretensions. Post-office. Population (1881) 5791.

Batála.—*Tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; area, 480 square miles; population (1881) 255,131, namely, Muhammadans, 132,758; Hindus, 71,337; Sikhs, 50,943; and 'others,' 93; persons per square mile, 532. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £28,724. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 2 honorary magistrates, presiding over 1 civil and 1 criminal court. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 2.

Batála.—Town and municipality in Gurdáspur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Batála *tahsíl;* situated on the main road from Amritsar to Gurdáspur and Pathánkot; distant 24 miles from Amritsar, and 20 miles from Gurdáspur. Lat. 31° 48′ 33″ N., long. 75° 14′ 3″ E. Batála is the largest town in Gurdáspur District, with a population (1881) of 24,281, namely, 8379 Hindus, 15,124 Muhammadans, 757 Sikhs, and 21 'others.' The town was founded about the year 1465, during the reign of Bahlol Lodi, by Rái Rám Deo, a Bhatti Rájput, on a piece of land granted by Tátar Khán, Governor of Lahore. Akbar gave it in *jágír* to Shamsher Khán, his foster-brother, who greatly improved and beautified the town, and built without it a magnificent tank, which still exists in perfect repair. Under the Sikh commonwealth, Batála was held first by the Rámgarhias, and after their expulsion, by the Kanhya confederacy. On their return from exile, the Rámgarhia chiefs again recovered the town, and retained it till the rise of Ranjít Singh. After the annexation of the Punjab, Batála was made the head-quarters of a District, subsequently transferred to Gurdáspur. Considerable trade, estimated at an annual value of

£10,000; manufactures of cotton, silk, brass, and leather goods. Some of the coarser qualities of *pashmina*, or cloth woven from the wool of the shawl goat, are manufactured at Batála. The principal buildings are the court-house, police station, *sarái*, *sadr* distillery, school-house, post-office, dispensary, two good tanks, massive tomb of Shamsher Khán; handsome building, known as the Anarkalli, erected by Sher Singh, son of Ranjít Singh, who held Batála in *jágír;* conspicuous Hindu temple. A Mission College and boarding-house for native Christian boys has been established at Batála by the Church Mission Society. The central portion of the town is raised to some height above the surrounding level, with well-paved streets, good drainage, and substantial brick-built houses; but the suburbs consist of squalid mud huts, occupied by Gujar shepherds and low-caste weavers, where filth accumulates to the great detriment of the general health. Municipal income in 1882–83, £1181; expenditure, £1966.

Batáli.—Frontier village of the Parla Kimidi Estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Ceded to the Kimidi Estate by the Jaipur (Jeypore) Rájá as a reward to the chief of the former for betraying the owner of Batáli to the Rájá, by whom he was put to death.—*See* MERANGI.

Batesar.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the right bank of the Jumna, and distant 35 miles south-east of Agra. Lat. 26° 56′ 6″ N., long. 78° 35′ 7″ E. Great commercial fair on last day of Kártik, which attracts 150,000 persons. Pilgrims bathe in the Jumna. From 4000 to 7000 horses are exposed for sale, besides 3000 camels and 10,000 cattle. Sales take place for two or three days before and after the religious festival. The horses come chiefly from Punjab and Upper Doáb, but some from Kábul and Rájputána. They are purchased for cavalry and police purposes, and also by private persons.

Batkágarh.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; north of Chhindwára, situated between 22° 25′ and 22° 41′ N. lat., and between 79° 10′ and 79° 50′ E. long. Area 161 square miles, with 90 villages, and 2511 occupied houses. Population, 10,460, namely, males 5268, and females 5192; persons per square mile, 65. The *jagírdár*, who is a Gond, pays an annual tribute or *takoli* of £3. Chief village, Khápa, containing (1881) 167 houses, and a total population of 816.

Bauliárí.—Seaport on the creek of the same name, in the Dhandhúká Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 4′ 30″ N., long. 72° 10′ 30″ E.

Bauphal.—Town in Bákarganj District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5055, namely, Muhammadans 3150, and Hindus 1905; area, 8620 acres. A municipal union, with an income of £152 in 1881–82; average rate of municipal taxation, 7¼d. per head.

Baupur.—Cantonment in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BERHAMPORE.

Baurgarh.—Hill in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; south-west of Jabalpur town, rising about 500 feet above the valley; formed of schistose quartzite. Lat. 23° 1′ 30″ N., long. 79° 40′ E. A narrow gorge separates it from the general range of trap hills. Coal is found in the neighbourhood.

Baurgarh.—An isolated granitoid hill in Betúl District, Central Provinces; about 25 miles north-west of Betúl. Lat. 22° 11′ 33″ N., long. 77° 50′ 30″ E. Scarped on all sides but one, and crowned by a ruined fort.

Bausí (*Baunsi, Bowsee*).—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated near the base of MANDAR HILL. Lat. 24° 50′ N., long. 78° 4′ E. The numerous buildings, tanks, large wells, and stone figures, found for a mile or two round the base of the sacred hill, show that a great city must once have stood here. The people of the neighbourhood say that it contained 52 markets, 53 streets, and 88 tanks. According to local tradition, on the night of the Dewáli festival a large building (the ruins of which still exist, and the walls of which contain an immense number of small holes, evidently intended to hold *chirághs*, or small native lamps) was formerly illuminated by a hundred thousand of these lights, each householder being allowed to supply only one. How or when the city fell into ruin is not known, though popular tradition ascribes its destruction to Kála Pahár. A Sanskrit inscription on a stone triumphal arch seems to show that the city was in existence less than 300 years ago. After the destruction of the temple of Madhusúdan on Mandar Hill, the image of the god was brought to Bausí, where it now remains. Once a year, on the Paus-Sankránti day, the image is carried from Bausí to the foot of the hill, and is swung on the triumphal arch above referred to. From 30,000 to 40,000 pilgrims assemble at this festival from all parts of the country, to bathe in the sacred tank at the foot of the hill, and a fair is held which lasts for 15 days.

Bávanapádu.—Town and port in the Tekkali Estate, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 36′ N., long. 84° 24′ 30″ E.; houses, 196; population (1881) 1059 Hindus, chiefly fishermen. Situated 4 miles from Naupádu, the largest salt station in the District, whence the salt is exported *viâ* Bávunapádu.

Bávrá (*Bávada*).—Petty chiefship, feudatory to the Kolhápur State, within the British Political Agency of Kolhápur and the Southern Maráthá country, Bombay Presidency, lying between 16° 24′ 45″ and 16° 43′ 45″ N. lat., and between 73° 51′ 45″ and 74° 8′ 30″ E. long. Excluding certain villages situated below the Western Gháts, the State is bounded north, east, and south by the lands of Panhálá, Karvir, and Bhudhargarh in Kolhápur, and west by the Gháts. Estimated area, 83 square

miles; population (1881) 39,356; gross revenue, £7783. The land is hilly and well wooded, and the soil generally red. In addition to the local rainfall, which is seldom deficient, four streams pass through the country above the Gháts, and two others water the villages lying at the foot of the hills. For purposes of irrigation, the water both of wells and rivers is raised, in the upland tract, by the rope and leather bag, and in the low-lying villages by the Persian wheel. From the strong damp wind and excessive wet of the rainy season (June to October), the climate of Bávra is unhealthy, the prevailing disease being dysentery. The chief articles of production are rice, and the usual varieties of grain grown in the Deccan. The only water communication is from the port of Vijayadrúg to the village of Pomburle. A cart-road runs from Bavra to Kolhápur, continued by a bridle-path down the Gháts, and so on to Vijayadrúg. There are 6 schools with 240 pupils. The chief is a Hindu of the Bhadanekar family of Bráhmans, and his title, Panth Amátya of Bávra. The late chief died on the 9th May 1867, and as he left no heirs, Mádhav Ráo Moreshwar, the present chief, was adopted on the 2nd April 1868; after attaining his majority, he was invested with the management of his estate on the 12th March 1881. He is assisted in the administration by a *Kárbári* nominated by the Kolhápur Darbár. A yearly tribute of £342 is paid to the Kolhápur State. Succession follows the rule of primogeniture, and there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The adoption of the present chief on the 2nd April 1868, was recognised by the paramount power as a special case.

Bávra.—Chief town in the Subordinate State of Bávra in Kolhápur State, Bombay Presidency; 26 miles south-west of Kolhápur. Lat. 16° 32′ 37″ N., long. 73° 51′ 27″ E.

Baw (*Bhaw*). — River in Pegu District, Pegu Division, British Burma, forming the boundary between Pú-gan-daung and Thanlyin circles. After it leaves the network of channels occupying the central portion of Thanlyin township, it flows westward through a fertile rice-producing country, and eventually joins the Pegu river a mile above Syriam. At high tide, the river is navigable throughout its whole length.

Báwal.—Town in Báwal *tahsíl*, Nábha State, Punjab. Population (1881) 4781, namely, Hindus, 3180; Sikhs, 63; Muhammadans, 1529; and 'others,' 9; number of occupied houses, 527.

Báwan.—*Parganá* in Hardoi *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by North Sara, on the east by South Sara and Gopámau, on the south by Sándi and Bangar, and on the west by Barwán and Saromannagar. A stronghold of the Thatherás, the ruins of whose fortress cover several acres of jungle. The expulsion of the Thatherás is said to have occurred in this way:—Rájá Jai Chánd of Kanauj deputed two Gaur chiefs to collect the annual tribute from the

Thatherás in what are now *parganás* Báwan and Sara. This they did, but they retained the money and represented that the Thatherás were rebellious and refused to pay; whereupon the king despatched a strong force against them from Kanauj, put them to the sword, and settled the Gaurs on their lands. For the most part the tract is level, but in the west the ground breaks into slight undulations; it is not watered by any river, but there are numerous *jhils*, tanks, and wells, by which $\frac{3}{10}$ of the cultivated area is irrigated. Area, 63 square miles, of which 45 are cultivated. Staple products—barley, wheat, *bájra*, *moth*, *arhar*, millet, sugar-cane, and *maskalái*. Government land revenue demand, £4525; average incidence, 3s. 1⅞d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 0¾d. per acre of total area. Of the 57 villages composing the *parganá*, 13 are held in *zamíndárí* and 44 in *pattidárí* tenure. Chamár Gaurs hold 35 villages; Raghubansís, 5; Sombansís, 4; Muhammadans, 4; Káyasths, 2; and Bráhmans, Raikwárs, Chandelás, Bais, and Chauháns, 1 each. Population (1881) 28,957, namely, 15,607 males and 13,350 females.

Báwan.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated 6 miles west of Hardoi town. Population (1881) 3580; houses, 572. Town school, with an average of 95 pupils. Market bi-weekly.

Bawan Buzurg.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; on the road from Bareli to Digbijaiganj, 8 miles from Rái Bareli town. Founded by the Bhars, and conquered from them by Fakír Khán, an Afghán follower of Ibráhím Sharki, whose descendants still own it. Population (1881) 4307. Formerly noted for its manufacture of shields. Government school.

Bawigirí.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam. Lat. 25° 29′ N., long. 90° 37′ E.

Báwisi. — Tributary State in Mahi Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Revenue, £4453; population (1881) 38,601; tribute, £3301, payable to Baroda.

Baxá.—Sub-division of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; extending from the Jaldhaka river on the west to the Sankos river, and bordering on the Eastern Dwárs. Head-quarters at Alipur.

Baxá.—Military cantonment in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; situated on a small gravel plateau, in a valley in the lower range of the Bhután Hills. Lat. 26° 50′ N., long. 89° 36′ E. It is 32 miles from Kuch Behar town, a good road connecting the two places; about 2 miles from Sontrábárí, at the base of the mountains, and 6 miles from the Bhután frontier. The cantonment consists of a rough fort, to which three pickets are attached, situated on spurs at a higher elevation. The plateau is 1800 feet above sea level. Baxá was established during the Bhután war of 1864–65, and, on the annexation of the Dwárs, a native infantry regiment was stationed here. Baxá is now occupied by

only a wing of a regiment. New substantial barracks, with stone walls and iron roofs, have recently been constructed, and form part of the fortifications. Two regimental market-places are situated at the west of the fort, and half a mile to the north is a Bhutiá village, with about 200 inhabitants. Water is obtained from two perennial streams, one of which issues from the base of the plateau.

Baxár (*Baksár*).—Sub-division of Sháhábád District, Bengal, lying between 25° 15′ 45″ and 25° 42′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 48′ 30″ and 84° 24′ 15″ E. long.; area, 656 square miles; number of villages, 888; number of occupied houses, 59,433; population (1881) 423,193, namely, 395,153 Hindus, 27,869 Muhammadans, and 171 Christians; average density of population, 645 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·35; houses per square mile, 105·17; persons per village, 475; persons per house, 7·12. The Sub-division consists of the *thánás* (police circles) of Baxár and Dumráon. The administrative staff consists of a District Magistrate, with 5 Deputy-Magistrates, District judge, sub-judge, additional judge, and 3 *munsifs*. There is also a bench of honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 6 civil and revenue, and 6 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 276 men, besides 1478 village watchmen and road police.

Baxár.—Town on the south bank of the Ganges, in Sháhábád District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Baxár Sub-division. Lat. 25° 34′ 24″ N., long. 84° 0′ 46″ E. Population (1881) 16,498, namely, 12,818 Hindus, 3512 Muhammadans, and 168 Christians and others. Municipal revenue in 1881–82, £586. There is a station of the East Indian Railway here—distance from Calcutta, 411 miles. Considerable traffic is carried on both by rail and river, principally in sugar, cotton, piece-goods, and salt. The place is famous as the scene of the defeat by Sir Hector Munro of Mír Kasím, the last independent Nawáb of Murshidábád, in a battle which finally won the Lower Provinces of Bengal for the British (Oct. 22nd, 1764). Baxár is a place of great sanctity, and is said to have been originally called *Vedágarbhá*, 'the womb of the Vedás,' as many of the inspired writers of the Vedic hymns lived here. A Government stud depôt, maintained here for some years, has recently been discontinued.

Baxár Canal.—A branch of the Main Western Canal of the Son (Soane) Canal system, which leaves the Main Western Canal at the twelfth mile from the head-works at Dehrí, and runs in a northerly direction until it joins the Ganges at Baxár. Lat. 25° 1′ to 25° 35′ 30″ N., long. 84° 2′ to 84° 8′ E. It is designed for navigation as well as irrigation, and a line of steamers is maintained on it by Government for the conveyance of goods and passengers; minimum width, 47 feet at base and 75 feet on water-line, with depth of 7 feet and side slopes of 2 to 1. The total length of the canal in 1882 was 45 miles, with numerous minor

distributaries, capable of irrigating 348,500 acres. With its branches it commands the country between the Káo and the Dunautí, which is much in need of irrigation.

Baxar.—Village in Unáo District, Oudh.—*See* BAKSAR.

Baynes' Hill.—*See* NUNDYDRUG.

Bayrá.—Considerable grain depôt and rice mart in Khulná District, Bengal.

Bayrá Bíl.—*Bíl* or marsh in the Sátkhira Sub-division of Khulná District, Bengal, covering an area of 40 square miles. Lat. 22° 30′ to 22° 40′ 45″ N., long. 89° 3′ to 89° 8′ 30″ E.; situated east of the Jamuná river, in Buran *parganá*. The unhealthiness of this fiscal division is attributed to the malaria generated by this and other large marshes. The greater part of the *bíl* is covered with reed jungle.

Bázárgáon.—Village in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; about 25 miles west of Nágpur. Lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., long. 78° 48′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 1389, mainly traders. Situated in a picturesque country, on the Bisnúr route to Berár and Bombay, the village attained great prosperity; but since the opening of the railway, the traffic by the road has become of less importance. A substantial police station and school-house have lately been built. To the west is a fine masonry reservoir, constructed about thirty years ago; and on the south a fort, much dilapidated, built about seventy years since by Dvárkojí Náik, a commander of 5000 mercenaries, and commissary-general under Rájá Jánojí of Nágpur.

Bazitpur.—Town in Maimansingh District, Bengal.—*See* BAJITPUR.

Beas (*Biás*).—One of the 'Five Rivers' of the Punjab, the Hyphasis of the Greeks (Sanskrit, *Vipasa*). Lat. 31° 11′ to 32° 22′ 30″ N., long. 75° 4′ to 77° 16′ 45″ E. Rises in the snowy mountains of Kullu 13,326 feet above the sea, traverses the State of Mandi, and enters Kángra District at Sanghol on its eastern frontier. During the early part of its course the fall averages 125 feet to the mile. Forms the main channel for the drainage of Kángra, and flows here in a meandering westerly course through hilly country, with a fall of 7 feet to the mile. Elevation at Sanghol, 1920 feet above sea level; at Mírthal *ghát*, where it debouches into the plains, 1000 feet. Near Reh in Kángra District the river divides into three channels, which reunite shortly after passing Mírthal. During its lower hill course the Beas is crossed by numerous ferries, at many of which the means of communication consist of inflated skins (*daráis*). On meeting the Siwálik Hills in the District of Hoshiárpur, the river sweeps sharply northward, to form the boundary between that District and Kángra. After bending round the base of the Siwáliks, it takes a southerly direction, and divides the Districts of Hoshiárpur and Gurdáspur. In this portion of its course through the uplands of the Punjab plain, a strip of low alluvial soil fringes

its banks, subject in flood-time to inundation from the central stream. The main channel is broad and ill defined, full of islands, and expanding from time to time into wide pools. The depth does not exceed 5 feet in dry weather, swelling to 15 feet during the rains. Broad, flat-bottomed country boats navigate this portion of the stream throughout the year. No bridges span the Beas in the Districts of Hoshiárpur or Gurdáspur. After touching Jalandhar District for a few miles, the Beas forms the boundary between Amritsar and the Kapurthála State. At Wazír Bholar *ghát* it is crossed by a railway bridge on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line; and a bridge of boats on the Grand Trunk Road is maintained at the same place during the cold season. The channel shifts from year to year through the alluvial valley according to the action of the floods. Finally, the Beas joins the Sutlej (Satlaj) at the southern boundary of the Kapurthála State, after a total course of 290 miles. It ranks sixth in size among the rivers of the Punjab.

Beauleah.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Rájsháhí District, Bengal.—*See* RAMPUR BEAULEAH.

Beáwar (*Beawr*, *Nayánagar*).—Town in Ajmere-Merwára Division, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 9′ 15″ N., long. 74° 23′ 20″ E.; population (1881) 15,829, namely, Hindus, 11,236; Muhammadans, 2241; Jains, 2127; Christians, 218; Pársís, 7. Founded in 1835 by Colonel Dixon, Commissioner of Ajmere-Merwára, in the neighbourhood of the cantonments, Beáwar rapidly grew into a prosperous town, owing to its advantageous position between Meywár (Udaipur) and Márwár (Jodhpur). The plan was regularly drawn out from the beginning, and sites allotted to various traders who applied for shops. Fine wide streets, planted with trees; a stone wall surrounding the town; houses of masonry, with tiled roofs. Beáwar has two hydraulic cotton presses and is the chief mart of cotton traffic for the District; manufacture of ironwork; trade in dyeing, and opium, which last is produced locally. It forms the only town in the Merwára tract. Post-office, dispensary; head-quarters of Assistant Commissioner. Municipal revenue in 1880-81, £4031, or 5s. 1d. per head of population within municipal limits. Expenditure, £2634.

Bechráji.—Temple in the Pattan Sub-division of Barodá State, Bombay Presidency; 25 miles from the town of Viramgám, in Ahmadábád District. Scene of a great religious festival in the month of Aswin (September–October), to which about 20,000 persons annually resort.

Bedám.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 2 square miles; land revenue, £9.

Bedanga (or *Beldángá*).—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 56′ 15″ N., long. 88° 18′ E.; population (1881) 5455, namely, 3602 Hindus, 1851 Muhammadans, and 2 'others.'

Beddadanol.—Village in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency; situated in the centre of the only Barákhar sandstones and coal-bearing formation of the Presidency (a small field $5\frac{1}{2}$ square miles in extent), 38 miles north-west of Rájámahendri (Rájahmundry), and 4 miles from the boundary of the Nizám's Dominions.

Bedla.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Situated about 3 miles north of the capital of the State, and the residence of a first-class noble, owning 61 villages.

Bednor.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Situated about 93 miles north-west of Udaipur town. A first-class noble of the State, who owns 60 villages, resides here.

Beehea.—Village and railway station, Sháhábád District, Bengal. —*See* BIHIYA.

Beerbhoom.—District of Bengal.—*See* BIRBHUM.

Begamábád.—Town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; distant 14 miles from Meerut city, and 28 miles from Delhi, situated on Grand Trunk Road; station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Lat. 26° 54′ 38″ N., long. 81° 53′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 2253, namely, Hindus, 1931; and Muhammadans, 322. The town contains a handsome temple built by Rání Bála Bái of Gwalior; a ruined mosque built by Nawab Zafar Ali, the founder of the town; encamping ground, police station, post-office, telegraph, school, *bázár;* good water supply; village police of 6 men. A small revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856.

Begu Sarái.—Sub-division of Monghyr District, Bengal, lying between 25° 15′ and 25° 46° 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 51′ 45″ and 86° 35′ E. long.; area, 769 square miles; number of villages, 1623; number of occupied houses, 75,061; population (1881) 583,426, namely, 529,140 Hindus, 54,260 Muhammadans, and 26 Christians and 'others'; average density of population, 759 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·11; houses per square mile, 99; persons per village, 358; persons per occupied house, 7·3. The Sub-division comprises the *thánás* (police circles) of Tegrá and Begu Sarái. In 1881–82 it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts, and a police force of 1098 men, of whom 1048 belonged to the village watch. Of the total area (769 square miles, or 492,160 acres), 52,800 acres are uncultivated, 340,000 are under food crops, and 99,360 under other than food crops. Most of the chief indigo factories of Monghyr lie in this Sub-division.

Behar.—One of the four great Provinces which make up the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, the remaining three being Bengal Proper, Orissa, and Chutiá Nágpur. It lies between 23° 46′ and 27° 29′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 88° 35′ E. long. The Province comprises the two Divisions or Commissionerships of Patná and Bhágalpur, and the twelve Districts of Patná, Gayá, Sháhábád, Muzaffarpur,

Darbhanga, Sáran, Champáran, Monghyr, Bhágalpur, Purneah, Maldah, and the Santál Parganás—all of which see separately. Area, 44,139 square miles, with 77,407 villages and towns, and 3,520,896 occupied houses. Population (1881) 23,127,104 souls.

Physical Aspects, etc.—The country generally is flat, except in the District of Monghyr, where detached hills occur, and in the south-east of the Province, where the Rájmahal and Santál ranges abut upon the plains. The highest hill is Moher (1620 feet), in Gayá District; the range in the Santál Parganás varies from 800 to 1600 feet in height. The great river is the Ganges, which, entering at Baxár and leaving at Rájmahal, divides the Province into two almost equal portions—the northern comprising the Districts of Sáran, Champáran, Muzaffarpur, Darbhanga, Purniah, and Maldah, with parts of Monghyr and Bhágalpur; and the southern containing Sháhábád, Patná, Gayá, the Santál Parganás, and the remainder of Monghyr and Bhágalpur Districts. Both portions are watered by large tributaries of the Ganges, the chief of these being the Gogra, the Gandak, the Kusí, the Mahánandá in the north, and the Son (Soane) in the south. The Behar Canal system, available both for navigation and irrigation, comprises the Son, Arrah, and Baxar Main Canals, with a number of branches and minor distributaries. In 1881–82 there were 216¾ miles of navigable main canal open, with 148 miles of branch canals, and 1034 miles of minor distributaries. The total area irrigated during the year was 178,075 acres, being about 30,000 acres less than in the previous year, due to the favourable rainfall. A Government steamer service is maintained on each of the three main lines of canals. The total number of boats using the Canals in 1881–82 was 10,688, of a total burthen of 113,971 tons, carrying cargoes to the value of £445,358. The canals yielded a total revenue of £73,629 in 1881–82, of which £60,393 was derived from water-rates. The working expenses were £45,372, leaving a net revenue of £27,897. A more detailed account will be found of each canal in its alphabetical order. Within the past few years railway communication has much advanced, and considerable further extensions are either in progress or under consideration. Besides the loop and chord lines of the great East Indian Railway, both of which intersect the Province, and after forming a junction at Lakhisarái, leave Behar at Baxar, the Patná and Gayá, and the Tirhút State Railways are open for traffic. Further extensions of the Tirhút Railway and its branches are under construction or in course of survey, and new schemes are projected. Other and more detailed information regarding the Province will be found in the separate articles on the Districts composing it, to which the reader is referred for agricultural, administrative, and trade statistics, etc. The most important industries of the Province are the manufacture of opium and indigo.

Population.—Behar forms the most densely peopled Province of India, the pressure of the people on the soil being as high as 524 per square mile, ranging from 287 per square mile in the hilly tracts of the Santál Parganás to 869 per square mile in Sáran. The total population of the Province in 1881 was returned by the Census of that year at 23,127,104, on an area of 44,139 square miles, or an increase (allowing for changes of area) of 2,716,503, or 13·3 per cent. in the 9 years since the previous Census in 1872. This population of 23,127,104 (males 11,385,836, and females 11,741,268) live in 77,407 towns and villages, and occupy 3,520,896 houses; average number of villages per square mile, 1·75; average number of houses per square mile, 84·96; average number of inmates per house, 5·57. The religious classification is as follows:—Hindus, 19,169,327, or 82·8 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 3,312,697, or 14·3 per cent.; Christians, 10,954; Sikhs, 54; Buddhists, 132; Jains, 24; Brahmos, 19; Jews, 50; Pársí, 1; and 'others,' chiefly aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive modes of faith, 633,846, or 2·8 per cent. These aboriginal tribes include 559,620 Santáls and 11,995 Kols. The table on p. 226 exhibits the area and population in each Division and District separately.

Of the Hindu population, the higher castes include—Bráhmans, 1,076,643; Rájputs, 1,166,593; Bábhan, an inferior class of Bráhmans, 985,098; Baniyás, or traders, 393,537; and Káyasths, the scribe or writer caste, 358,068. The principal Súdra castes are the following:—Madak, confectioners, 145,717; Kumbhar, potters, 283,740; Tántí and Tatwa, weavers, 419,521; Telí, merchants and oil-sellers, 632,029; Sonár, goldsmiths and jewellers, 184,229; Lohar, blacksmiths, 252,914; Nápit, barbers, 340,717; Kandu, traders and sugar-boilers, 531,423; Gowála, cowherds and milkmen, the most numerous caste in the Province, 2,642,957; Kúrmí, the highest cultivating caste, 790,523; Koerí, cultivators, 1,124,361; Sunrí, merchants and spirit dealers, 139,505; Káhar, labourers and palanquin-bearers, 468,305; Mallah, boatmen, 392,622; Keut, fishermen, 112,821; Pásí, palm-toddy makers, 147,041; Dhanuk, fowlers, and also village watchmen, 531,904; Chamár, shoemakers and skinners, 882,113; Dosadh, scavengers, 1,052,564. The aboriginal tribes professing Hinduism, as distinguished from aborigines by race, comprise—Bhuinhars, 182,954; Koch, 132,636; Kharwárs, 32,578; Gonds, 31,296; Santáls, 10,203; Kols, 3481; Bhumijs, 3880; and 'others,' 115,810. The Muhammadans are classified according to sect into—Sunnís, 2,958,739; Shiás, 61,708; Wahábis, 27; and unspecified, 292,223. The Christian community comprises—Europeans, 3010; Eurasians, 1192; and 'others,' 6729, of whom 6091 are natives of India. The 77,407 towns and villages are thus classified according to population:—Containing less than two hundred

[*Sentence continued on p.* 227.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF EACH DIVISION AND DISTRICT IN BEHAR, ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1881.

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Total Population.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	All others.	Population per square mile.	Land Revenue (approximate)
PATNA.	Patná, ...	2,079	1,756,856	1,541,061	213,141	2,588	66	845.05	£ 180,328
	Gayá, ...	4,712	2,124,682	1,891,484	233,098	96	4	450·91	185,672
	Sháhábád, ...	4,365	1,964,909	1,817,881	146,732	276	20	450·15	203,622
	Muzaffarpur, . . .	3,003	2,582,060	2,265,380	316,308	372	...	859·83	125,700
	Darbhanga, ...	3,335	2,633,447	2,323,979	308,985	325	158	789·64	114,028
	Sáran, ...	2,622	2,280,382	2,010,958	269,142	282	...	869·71	154,930
	Champáran, ...	3,531	1,721,608	1,476,985	242,687	1,936	...	487·57	66,678
	TOTAL, . .	23,647	15,063,944	13,327,728	1,730,093	5,875	248	637·03	1,030,958
BHAGALPUR.	Monghyr, ...	3,921	1,969,774	1,774,013	187,517	1,091	7,153	502·37	107,839
	Bhágalpur, ...	4,268	1,966,158	1,764,304	185,533	578	15,743	460·67	82,239
	Purniah, ...	4,956	1,848,687	1,076,539	771,130	327	691	373·02	131.842
	Maldah, ...	1,891	710,448	379,153	329,525	26	1,744	375·70	46,207
	Santál Parganás, . .	5,456	1,568,093	847,590	108,899	3,057	608,547	287·41	28,905
	TOTAL, . .	20,492	8,063,160	5,841,599	1,582,604	5,079	633,878	393·48	397,032
	GRAND TOTAL, .	44,139	23,127,104	19,169,327	3,312,697	10,954	634,126	523·96	1,427,990

Sentence continued from p. 225.]
inhabitants, 43,726; from two to five hundred, 21,680; from five hundred to a thousand, 8769; from one to two thousand, 2662; from two to three thousand, 388; from three to five thousand, 105; from five to ten thousand, 46; from ten to fifteen thousand, 15; from fifteen to twenty thousand, 4; from twenty to fifty thousand, 6; upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants, 6. The capital town of the Province, PATNA CITY, contains a population of 170,654. There are in all 73 towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, containing a total urban population of 1,217,380, leaving a balance of 21,909,724 representing the rural population.

History.—In ancient times, Behar comprised the dominions of the Kings of Magadha, who were at one time the lords paramount of India, and whose court is traditionally represented as one of the most brilliant in the East. This kingdom flourished from the 4th century before the Christian era to the 5th century after it. The Magadha monarchs encouraged arts and learning, constructed roads, and sent their fleets across the Bay of Bengal to colonize Java, Bali, and other islands in the Indian Archipelago. The kingdom is supposed to have attained its greatest grandeur in the time of Seleukos Nikator, one of the immediate successors of Alexander the Great, who invaded Magadha and appointed Megasthenes to represent him at the court at Palibothra, which is supposed to have been on the site of the present city of Patná. But ancient Behar is chiefly interesting as having been, six centuries before the Christian era, the cradle of Buddhism. It sent its missionaries to Ceylon, China, Tartary, and Tibet, and the Province is still regarded as sacred by all Buddhist nations. Numerous buildings and sculptures of great antiquity and interest found throughout the Province show how firmly the religion of Gautama had established itself in this part of India. These Buddhist antiquities will be referred to in the separate articles on the Behar Districts (see particularly articles on Gayá District and town, and Buddh Gayá). In the beginning of the 13th century, Behar came into the hands of the Muhammadans, and from that time it formed one of the three *subahs*, or Provinces, under the Nawáb of Bengal. The East India Company acquired it with the *díwání* in 1765, when the Province was united with Bengal. [For further information regarding the geography and statistics of Behar Province, see the authorities cited at the end of the articles on the Behar Districts mentioned in the foregoing table, p. 226.]

Behar.—Sub-division of Patná District, Bengal, lying between 24° 57′ 30″ and 25° 25′ 45″ N. lat., and between 85° 11′ 45″ and 85° 46′ 30″ E. long.; area, 793 square miles; number of towns and villages, 2451; number of houses, 117,199, of which 101,927 were occupied; population (1881) 628,767, namely, 551,467 Hindus, 77,292 Muhammadans,

7 Christians, and 1 Jain. Average density of population, 793 per square mile; villages per square mile, 3·09; houses per square mile, 148; persons per village, 256; persons per house, 6·17. The Sub-division consists of the *thánás* of Behar, Hilsá, Atá Sarái, and Siláo. In 1883, it contained one civil and two criminal courts; strength of regular police, 168 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 1344. Throughout this tract are found numerous Buddhist and other antiquities of great interest to the archæologist. The Province, indeed, takes its name from *Vihára*, meaning a Buddhist monastery.—*See* RAJAGRIHA, GIRIYAK, and PATNA and GAYA DISTRICTS.

Behar.—Town in Patná District, Bengal, and head-quarters of the Behar Sub-division, situated on the Pancháná river. Lat. 25° 11′ 28″ N., long. 85° 33′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 48,968, namely, males 23,797, and females 25,171. Hindus numbered 33,668; Muhammadans, 15,296; 'others,' 4. Municipal income in 1881–82, £1605, of which £1415 was derived from taxation; expenditure, £1737; incidence of municipal taxation, 6⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits; police force for protection of the town, 97 men. Considerable trade is carried on here. All the traffic between Patná, Gayá, Hazáribágh, and Monghyr passes through Behar, and travelling traders offer their goods for sale as they pass. Principal articles of trade—European cloth, rice and other grains, cotton, tobacco, etc. Silk and cotton cloths, and muslins rivalling those of Dacca, are manufactured here. About thirty years ago, up-country Muhammadan dealers used to export large quantities of Behar muslins, but these men have now (1883) apparently ceased coming to the town. The most remarkable building in Behar is a large *sarái* or inn, recently built for the use of Hindu and Muhammadan pilgrims. The tomb of Sháh Makhdum, on the south bank of the river, is resorted to by about 20,000 Musalmáns once a year, a large fair being held on the occasion. Many other tombs are found in the city, which also contains several ancient mosques, and the ruins of an old fort, covering more than 300 acres of ground. The city is supposed to have been the capital of the ancient kingdom of Magadha, soon after the commencement of the Christian era, but its early history is involved in obscurity.

Behir.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bálághát District, Central Provinces; area, 1451 square miles; villages, 409; houses, 15,034, of which 14,534 are occupied. Population (1881) 74,139, namely, 37,573 males and 36,566 females; average density of population, 51·1 per square mile. Of the total area of 1451 square miles, 309 square miles form private estates or *zamíndárís*, paying a light quit-rent or tribute. Of the Government land (1142 square miles), 531 square miles are assessed for revenue, of which only 72 square miles are cultivated,

while 383 square miles are cultivable, and 76 square miles uncultivable waste. The adult agricultural population is returned at 34,587, or 51·01 per cent. of the total population; average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 8 acres per head of agricultural population. Total amount of Government land revenue (1881), including cesses and rates levied upon land, £1269, or an average of 6⅝d. per cultivated acre; rental actually paid by cultivators, including cesses, 10¾d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 6 police stations; strength of regular police, 46 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 340.

Behir.—Small village in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Situated in the hilly portion of the District, 1987 feet above sea level, and 41 miles north-east of Bálághát town. Population (1881) 708, chiefly Gonds and Pardhans. Behir must once have been a place of considerable importance, as indicated by the remains of 13 massive temples of hewn granite built prior to the days of mortar. Some are quite plain, apparently Buddhistic; while others are elaborately carved. Three only are now standing. No local tradition exists as to what the place once was, or to whom it belonged.

Behri.—Petty State or *jagír* in Bundelkhand.—*See* BERI.

Behror.—Town in Alwar State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5533, namely, Hindus, 4427; and Muhammadans, 1106.

Behti (*Beti*).—Village in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh. Picturesquely situated on the bank of what was formerly a large lake covering an area of about 10 square miles in the rains, and 3 square miles in the dry season. The lake has since been drained by pumping, and the opening up of cuttings leading to the Ganges. To the north is a high bank covered with groves of magnificent trees. The former lake is now entirely under cultivation. It is reported to have been dug by a Rájá of Ajodhya as a votive offering, and was celebrated for wild-fowl and fish; an island in the middle contained an ancient edifice built as a shooting-box by some prince. Population (1881) 1959, namely, Hindus, 1908; and Muhammadans, 51. Two Hindu temples; village school.

Behtí Kalan.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh. The town is of no commercial importance, but contains a fine Hindu temple to Mahádeo.

Beja.—State in the Punjab.—*See* BIJA.

Bekal (the '*Cota Koulam*' of De Barros).—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 23′ 45″ N., long. 75° 4′ 35″ E. Possesses a large fort in fair preservation, with fortifications bearing traces of European science, built on a high point projecting into the sea. It was probably first erected during the wars between the Ikkeri and Cherákal Rájás, and subsequently improved.

Belá.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; 4 miles from Partábgarh town, and 36 from Allahábád, on the road from Allahábád to Faizábád (Fyzabad). Lat. 25° 55′ 30″ N., long. 82° 2′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 4037, namely, Hindus, 2418; and Muhammadans, 1619. The administrative head-quarters of Partábgarh District are at MacAndrewganj, adjoining this town. Two Hindu temples and one mosque.

Belá (or *Vela*).—Agricultural town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; 10 miles south of Borí. Lat. 20° 46′ 35″ N., long. 79° 3′ 54″ E. Population (1881) 4943, namely, Hindus, 4426; Muhammadans, 215; Jains, 183; aboriginal tribes, 119. Has three fine wells, a school-house, and police buildings. Exports coarse cotton cloth and gunny, the fabric of which the Banjárás' packs are made. Said to have been founded in the time of the Gaulís. The fort, now in a dilapidated condition, was built by Rái Singh Chaudharí, a large landholder, whose descendants are still *málguzárs* of Belá. It was twice destroyed during the Pindárí troubles. The village is the residence of an Honorary Magistrate.

Belagávi (or *Balagámi*).—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 75° 18′ E.; population (1881) 1428. Celebrated for its ruined temples, which for the taste and finish of their carving are not surpassed by any in Mysore. It was the capital of the Kadamba dynasty, and as early as the 12th century it was regarded as 'the mother of cities.' It abounds with inscriptions, of which sixty-two have been photographed and translated. Its prosperity continued under the Ballálá kings, and it was probably destroyed when their power was overthrown by the Muhammadans in 1310. Some of the sculptures have been carried away to the Mysore Museum.

Belámárapalavalása.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 3 square miles. Land revenue, £104.

Belápur.—Seaport in Tháná District, Bombay Presidency. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £19,383; imports, £3227.

Beldángá.—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal.—*See* BEDANGA.

Belgáum (*Belgám*, *Belgáon*).—District in the Southern Division of the Bombay Presidency, lying between 15° 22′ and 16° 56′ N. lat., and between 74° 4′ and 75° 35′ E. long.; area, 4657 square miles; population (1881) 864,014. The District is bounded on the north by the States of Miraj and Jath; north-east by Kaládgi District; east by the States of Jámkhandi and Mudhol; south and south-east by the Districts of Dhárwár and North Kánara, and the State of Kolhápur; south-west by the territory of Goa; and west by the States of Sáwantwári and Kolhápur. Extreme length from N.E. to S.W. 120 miles, with a varying breadth of from 50 to 80 miles. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 1133. Land revenue (1880-81) £124,860;

total revenue (gross) £179,370. The lands of the District are greatly interlaced with those of the neighbouring Native States, and within the District are large tracts of native territory.

Physical Aspects.—The country forms a large plain studded with solitary peaks, and broken here and there by low ranges of hills. Many of the peaks are crowned by small but well-built hill forts. The ranges of low hills are generally covered with wild brushwood, but in some cases their sides are carefully cultivated almost to the very summits. The most elevated portion of the District lies to the west and south, along the line of the Sahyádri Hills or Western Gháts. The surface of the plain slopes with an almost imperceptible fall eastwards to the borders of Kaládgi District. On the north and east, the District is open and well cultivated, but to the south it is intersected by spurs of the Sahyádri range, thickly covered in some places with forest. Except near the Sahyádri range, and in other places where broken by lines of low hills, the country is almost a dead level. But especially in the south, and along the banks of the larger rivers, the surface is pleasantly varied by trees, solitary and in groups. From March to June the fields are bare, and but for the presence of the mango, tamarind, jack, and other trees, reared for their fruit, the aspect of the country would be desolate in the extreme.

The principal rivers are the Kistna (Krishna), flowing through the north, the Ghátprabha, flowing through the centre, and the Malprabhá through the south of the District. From their sources among the spurs of the Sahyádri range, these rivers pass eastwards through the plain of Belgáum on their way to the Bay of Bengal. They are bordered by deeply-cut banks, over which they seldom flow. None of the rivers are serviceable for purposes of navigation. In the west, these rivers and wells yield a sufficient supply of good water; but towards the east they become brackish, and the water-bearing strata lie far below the surface. Except the Kistna, which at all times maintains a considerable flow of water, the rivers sink into insignificant streams during the hot season, and the supply of water falls short of the wants of the people.

The general character of the geology of Belgáum District may be described as a trap formation overlaid with laterite detritus. Iron ore is found in some places. In the north are rocks of sandstone and quartz; in the south is found a fine red sandstone, near the Sahyádri Hills; and farther east a grey granite, mica schist, and laterite in large quantities.

In the west of the District, among the spurs of the Sahyádri range, is a considerable area of forest-bearing land. Formerly large forest tracts were yearly destroyed by the indiscriminate practice of *kumári*, or the cultivation of shifting patches of fire-cleared woodland. This form of tillage has now been placed under restrictions. The most important

forest trees are the teak, blackwood, *honne* (Pterocarpus marsupium), *hirda* or myrabolan, and jackwood. There are also a few *babúl* reserves.

Of wild animals, antelope are common, ranging over the black soil plains in herds of from 20 to 40 head. *Sámbhar* deer, wild hog, and hyænas are found in the waste and forest lands. Of the larger beasts of prey, panthers are pretty generally distributed, but tigers are met with only in the south and south-west. Of game-birds there are wild peacock, partridge, quail, snipe, teal, *kalam*, and occasionally bustard. Except the well-built and agile Mysore cattle, and one or two varieties of buffaloes of northern origin, usually kept by the *gaulís* or professional milkmen, the local breeds of cattle are poor.

History.—The District of Belgáum forms part of the territory ceded under the name of Dhárwár by the Peshwá, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Poona (June 1818). For some years after the cession, this territory continued to be administered as one District with Dhárwár; but in 1836 it was considered advisable to divide the unwieldy jurisdiction into two parts. Under the arrangements then introduced, the southern portion continued to be known as Dhárwár, and the tract to the north was constituted a separate charge under the name of Belgaum. The first settlement of the District took place in 1848–49; in 1881–82 re-settlement operations were in progress.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 864,014 persons, or 185·53 to the square mile. Of these, 746,286, or 86·38 per cent., were Hindus; 44,991, or 5·20 per cent., Sráwaks or Jains; 66,262, or 7·67 per cent., Musalmáns; 6322, or ·73 per cent., Christians; 89 Jews; and 64 Pársís. The males numbered 434,485; the females, 429,529. The percentage of males in the total population is 50·29.

The people are chiefly employed as cultivators, though a considerable number of the population support themselves by weaving. Among the Hindus the only special class are the Lingáyats, a peculiar section of the worshippers of Siva. Along the banks of the Kistna, in the north of the District, are many Kaikáris, a tribe notorious from the skill of one of its sub-divisions as highway robbers.

Of the 746,286 Hindus, 30,404 are returned as Bráhmans; 2711 as Rájputs; and 90,848 as Lingáyats. Of the 66,262 Musalmáns, 66,226 are Sunnís, and only 36 are Shiás. Of the 6322 Christians, 1178 are Europeans, 81 Eurasians, and 5063 native converts.

The languages in use are Maráthí, Hindustání, and Kánarese. The Pársís employ Guzerátí among themselves, both in conversation and writing. Kánarese is the official language of the District.

Of the whole population, 71,100 persons, or 8·23 per cent., live in towns containing a population of more than 5000 souls. The villages

are generally shaded by trees, and surrounded by a hedge of prickly pear (Opuntia vulgaris). They are otherwise without defence or fortification. In the west of the District, the houses have roofs of thatch or tile; but towards the east where the rainfall is light, the roof is flat, made of mud and surrounded by a mud parapet. Each village has generally one chief street, in which the richest villagers have their dwellings, with smaller roads branching off at right angles. Except in the larger towns, there are few houses more than one storey high. In country villages, the well-to-do live in houses with walls of brick and doors of wood, of which, in many instances, the posts and lintels are elegantly carved. The foundations of the houses are raised on a plinth generally of hewn stone, 2 or 3 feet above the level of the street. The middle classes live in dwellings with walls of mud and straw, and doors of plaited or woven bamboos; the poor in huts with roofs of thatch and walls of a few bamboos interlaced with millet stalks, sometimes daubed over with mud. Outside the village hedge, a group of carelessly-made hovels form the quarters of the Mahárs and other depressed classes.

Exclusive of the hamlets, there were, in 1881, 5 towns and 1072 inhabited villages, giving an average of ·22 villages to each square mile, and 87·82 inhabitants to each village. The number of houses, occupied and unoccupied, was 188,694, or 40·5 per square mile.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) BELGAUM, with a population of 32,697, inclusive of 9582 in the cantonment; (2) GOKAK, population 10,307; (3) ATHNI, population 11,186; (4) NIPANI, population 9777; (5) SAUNDATTI, population 7133; (6) YAMKANMARDI, population 4491.

Trade associations or guilds scarcely exist in Belgáum, and the constitution of the village community is but imperfectly preserved. The office of village head-man or *pátel* still remains in many cases hereditary and more rarely stipendiary. By caste, most of the village head-men are Hindus of the Lingáyat sect. The office of village clerk, *kulkarni*, is, with but few exceptions, hereditary in Hindu families of the Bráhman caste. Almost all villages have watchmen and messengers of the Mahár caste. The head-man, clerk, and watchman are paid both in cash and in land. The other members of the full staff of village servants are found in but few villages. The shoemaker, the barber, and the potter still remain, but only as ordinary workmen, having almost completely lost their public character.

Agriculture.—In 1880–81 the total area of arable land in the District was 1,139,050 acres, of which 1,032,253 acres were in occupation; the remainder, 106,797 acres, lay waste. Wet cultivation is carried on to a very limited extent, being adopted only for rice fields and gardens. Irrigated lands in the most favourable situations receive their supply of water by canals from perennial rivulets, or from rivers that have dams

or weirs thrown across them. The chief varieties of soil are black and red; of these the black is by far the most fertile. It is of two kinds; one so friable, that when swept by a strong wind it rises in clouds of almost impalpable powder. Under foot this soil is heavy, and when impregnated with moisture forms a tough, clay-like substance, almost impervious to water, and therefore very valuable as a lining for tanks. The other variety of black soil is not so tenacious of moisture, and unless it receives abundance of irrigation, either natural or artificial, not nearly so productive. The inferiority of the red soil is due chiefly to the fact that, being of a more sandy composition, it retains moisture for a shorter time. In order to bring a waste of black soil under tillage, the field must receive three complete ploughings—one direct, one transverse, and one diagonal. For the future it does not want any further ploughing; on the contrary, the great aim of the cultivator is to maintain the surface as firm and consistent as possible, and all that is required annually before sowing, is to clear the ground and loosen the surface with a small knife. The red and sandy soils are very apt to cake and harden after rain, so that the object of the farmer is to keep them as loose and friable as possible. For this purpose the field must be ploughed every year; if possible, once lengthwise and a second time transversely. This is done by a smaller plough of the same construction as the large plough used for black fields, but so light that the farmer on his way to and from work may be seen carrying his plough on his shoulder. Fields of pure black soil do not want manure; on the other hand, the out-turn from red and sandy lands seems to depend almost entirely on the amount of dressing they have received. Cultivators are aware that land requires stimulating, but, from the scarcity of firewood, much cow-dung, which would be their best manure, is consumed as fuel.

On dry fields, most of the grain, pulses, oil-seeds, and fibres are sown; of these some are cultivated on red and sandy soils during the rainy months; others are grown on black soil as a cold-weather crop. Cotton, which is raised entirely on black soil as a cold-weather crop, is usually sown about the middle of August, or rarely in September. Before sowing, the seed is first dipped in cow-dung and water, and then mixed with a little earth, that it may slip easily through the bamboo drill. Cotton is generally sown by itself, but it is sometimes drilled in rows in the same field with a crop of Italian millet (*bájrá*).

The threshing of the monsoon crops commences in December; of the cold-weather crops, in March. On a convenient part of the field a space of from 12 to 20 yards in diameter is wetted and beaten until it becomes smooth, hard, and firm. In the case of spiked and red millet, the heads are cut off short and thrown upon the ground. The farmer's whole stock of cattle is then fastened abreast to a rope round a post

fixed in the centre of the threshing-floor. For winnowing, a day is chosen with a moderately strong breeze. The winnower stands on a high stool, and has the grain handed up to him in a small flat basket. Holding the basket at arm's-length, he pours the contents gently over its edge, when the heavy grain falls in a heap at the foot of the winnower's stool, while the chaff is blown away by the wind.

Before the heap of grain is taken home by the farmer, he has to distribute from it perquisites to the village astrologer, to certain village servants, and to the blacksmith and carpenter, as well as to all sorts of beggars who in the harvest season flock to the threshing-floors. If not intended for seed or immediate use, the grain is usually stored in underground granaries. In order to construct such a grain-pit, the farmer on a somewhat elevated spot, in a hard soil within or near the village, digs a narrow shaft about a cubit in diameter, and 10 to 15 cubits deep. Its sides are then hollowed, so as to form a pit with a roof of about 2 cubits thick. The floor, sides, and roof are lined with straw, and the pit is then filled with grain. Grain meant for immediate consumption is simply stored in front of the cultivator's house, in large cylindrical baskets, smeared inside and out with a plaster of cow-dung.

The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators of State (*khálsá*) villages during 1880–81 was returned at 59,414 ploughs, 21,320 carts, 174,714 bullocks, 106,957 buffaloes, 87,019 cows, 5845 horses, 159,868 sheep and goats, and 3176 asses. Of the 948,390 acres under actual cultivation in 1880–81, grain crops occupied 683,308 acres, or 72 per cent.; pulses, 102,819 acres, or 10·84 per cent.; oil-seeds, 33,889 acres, or 3·59 per cent.; fibres (including cotton), 104,955 acres, or 11 per cent.; tobacco, 6212, or 0·69 per cent.; sugar-cane, 4443 acres, or 0·49 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 12,764 acres, or 1·34 per cent. The current (1881) rates of daily wages are—in towns, for unskilled labourers, from 4½d. to 6d. (3 annas to 4 annas), and for skilled men, such as carpenters and bricklayers, from 1s. to 1s. 6d. (8 annas to 12 annas) per day. The rates paid to agricultural labourers, who are occasionally engaged in piece-work, are slightly lower. The work of cotton-picking is left entirely to women, who during the season earn about 3d. (2 annas) a day. The prices of the chief articles of food during 1881 were, per *maund* of 40 *sers* or 80 lbs.—for wheat, 7s. 11¼d.; for rice, 6s. 10¼d.; for Indian millet or *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 3s. 9¾d.; for Italian millet or *bájrá* (Holcus spicatus), 3s. 8¼d.; for gram, 5s. 0¾d.; for peas or *dál*, 6s. 8¼d.

Trade, etc.—Belgáum District has no railway or navigable river. There are 137 miles of bridged roads, and 631 miles of roads suitable for fair weather traffic. The capitalists of the District are chiefly Márwárís and Bráhmans, but in the town of Belgáum there are a few Musalmáns who possess comfortable fortunes. Lying so far

inland, without railway or navigable river, the District possesses no foreign trade of importance. Cotton is the only article for which the demand is not purely local. European manufactures and other articles required for the European population in the Belgáum cantonment are brought by shopkeepers from Bombay. In several villages throughout the District markets are held at fixed intervals, usually once a week. These markets supply the wants of the country round within a radius of about 6 miles, containing as a rule from 25 to 30 villages and hamlets.

Next to agriculture, hand-loom weaving forms the chief industry of the District. The weavers are generally Lingáyats or Musalmáns, with a small sprinkling of Maráthás. The finer sorts of cloth are manufactured only in two or three towns. With the exception of a small quantity of cloth sent to the neighbouring Districts, the produce of its hand-looms is almost entirely consumed in Belgáum. Simple dyeing and tanning is carried on over the whole District. Gokák town was once famous for its dyers, and is still noted for a coarse kind of paper made in large quantities. Gokák toys, made both from light kinds of wood and from a peculiar kind of earth, are also celebrated. They consist of models of men and gods, fruits and vegetables.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Belgáum District is divided into 7 *táluks* or Sub-divisions, viz. ATHNI, BELGAUM, BIDI, CHIKODI, GOKAK, PARASGAD, and SAMPGAON. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 4 Assistants, of whom 2 are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 5 courts. In 1880–81, the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £7498, and the amount realized from court fees and stamps £13,196. There are 20 officers for the administration of criminal justice, of whom 6 are Europeans, 4 being covenanted civilians and 2 military officers. In the same year the excise revenue amounted to £12,898, and the license tax produced £4514. In the year 1881, the total strength of the District or regular police force was 674 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £11,330. These figures show 1 man to every 6·9 square miles as compared with the area, and 1 man to every 1497 souls as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance was equal to £2, 8s. per square mile, or 3d. per head of population. In 1881, the Belgáum jail contained a daily average of 683 convicted prisoners, including 13 females—showing 1 prisoner to every 1265 of the population; the total cost was £3864, or £5, 13s. 2d. per prisoner. The District contains 18 post-offices and 1 telegraph office at Belgáum town.

The District local funds for works of public utility, and for the spread of rural education, yielded in the year 1880–81, £12,203. The disbursements amounted to £6460, expended in the construction of new

wells, repairs to tanks and old wells, roads, travellers' bungalows, planting out of trees on the roadsides, and for the maintenance of a dispensary. There are 6 municipalities in the District:—BELGAUM TOWN, GOKAK, ATHNI, NIPANI, SAUNDATTI, and YAMKANMARDI. The total municipal receipts in 1880–81 amounted to £6730, and the total expenditure to £5598; the incidence of taxation varied from 6d. to 2s. 3d. per head in the different municipalities. In 1880–81, the total amount of revenue raised from the District, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, was £179,370, showing an incidence of taxation per head of 4s.; the land revenue alone realized £128,710.

There are 4 dispensaries and 1 hospital. During 1880–81, 17,129 persons in all were treated, of whom 17,030 were out-door and 99 in-door patients. In the same year, 17,432 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths registered during the fourteen years ending 1879, was returned at 338,112, being an average yearly mortality of 24,151, or a death-rate of 25·73 per 1000 of the total population; in 1880, the number of deaths was 23,498, or a rate of 27·2 per 1000. During the year 1880, the number of births was returned at 24,184, of whom 12,526 were entered as male, and 11,658 as female children, or a rate of 28·0 per 1000.

In the year 1880–81, there were 195 Government schools, besides 5 missionary schools, or an average of one school for every 6 villages, with an attendance of 12,386 pupils, or 1·43 per cent. of the total population, though, if the percentage were calculated merely on the population of the villages where there are schools, it is 2·9; 9 schools of the above number were for girls, with 368 scholars; in addition there were 233 girls receiving education in mixed schools, making a total of 601 girl scholars. Educational expenditure, from imperial, local, and other funds, £6804. In Belgaum town there are 7 libraries and 1 local newspaper.

Medical Aspects.—Sometimes in April and May the heat is extreme, and in June and July the air is close and heavy, but on the whole the climate is equable and pleasant to Europeans. For a series of years from 1852 to 1861 the average annual rainfall was 46·32 inches; between 1862 and 1871, 24·77; while for the twenty-two years ending 1881 it was 32·89 inches. In the latter year, the rainfall was 28·57 inches, or 4·32 inches below the average. At the close of the rainy season, in October and November, fevers are common, but at other times, except in the wilder or less cultivated tracts near the Sahyádri Hills, the climate is healthy.

The only famous place of pilgrimage in the District is the hill of the goddess Yellámá, in the Párasgad Sub-division, on which, twice in the year, at the full moon of April and November, fairs are held, lasting for

three days. The number of pilgrims varies from 15,000 to 40,000. The November ceremonies represent the death of Yellámá's husband, and those in April his return to life. In November, the mysteries are performed at a small shrine about a quarter of a mile distant from the main temple. At a certain stage in the ceremony the immense multitude raise a deep wail, not unlike the crone of watchers at an Irish wake. With this mingles a crackling sound, arising from the great throng of women, numbering about two-thirds of the whole assembly, who, in sympathy with the goddess in her widowhood, shatter the glass bangles on their arms. [For further information regarding Belgáum, see Mr. Stack's *Memorandum on Land Revenue Settlements*, pp. 462–468 (Government Press, Calcutta), and the forthcoming volume of the *Bombay Gazetteer*, edited by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S.; also the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881, and the *Bombay Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Belgáum.—Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 662 square miles; contains 201 villages, of which 122 are Government and 81 alienated. Population (1881) 128,477, of whom 66,709 were returned as males, and 61,768 as females. Of Hindus, there were 110,839; of Muhammadans, 11,151; and of 'others,' 6487.

Belgáum.—Chief town of the District of the same name, in the southern Maráthá country, Bombay Presidency; situated at an elevation of nearly 2500 feet above sea level, on the northern slope of the basin of a watercourse called the Bellary *nálá*, an affluent of the Márkandi river, which flows into the Ghátprabhá, one of the numerous tributaries of the Kistná (Krishná). Lat. 15° 51′ 37″ N., long. 74° 33′ 59″ E.; population (1881) 23,115, including 9582 in the cantonment. The municipal population, numbering 23,115, comprised 16,519 Hindus, 5169 Muhammadans, 1171 Jains, 254 Christians, and 10 Pársis. The cantonment contained 5247 Hindus, 1975 Muhammadans, 2 Jains, 2227 Christians, 43 Pársis, and 88 'others.' Municipal revenue (1880–81) £3170; rate of taxation, 1s. 11¼d. per head. The native town lies between the fort on the east and the military cantonment, which extends along its western front, separated from it by a watercourse. It forms an irregular ellipse, approximating to a circle, of which the shorter axis is about 1300 yards. The rock on which the town is built consists of laterite, lying upon the trap of the Deccan. The site is well wooded. Bamboos, from which Vennugrámá, the ancient Kánarese name of the town, is said to be derived, are plentiful, and mangoes, tamarinds, and banyans are also abundant. The fort, about 1000 yards in length and 700 in breadth, is surrounded by a broad and deep wet ditch, cut in hard ground. In 1818, after the overthrow of the Peshwá, the place was invested by a British force.

After holding out for twenty-one days, the garrison of 1600 men capitulated, having lost 20 killed and 50 wounded, while the loss of the British amounted to 11 killed and 12 wounded.

Since its acquisition by the British, Belgáum has increased greatly in size and wealth. The large military cantonment contributes to its prosperity, while the school built for the children of natives of rank, adds to its social importance. The principal articles of trade are salt, dry fish, dates, cocoa-nuts, and coir, imported from the sea-coast, chiefly from the port of Vingorlá. Grain of all kinds, sugar, and molasses are also brought from the country round. The city contains more than 300 looms for the manufacture of cotton cloth. The water supply is entirely derived from wells. Besides the courts and offices of the judge, Collector, Assistant Collector, District superintendent of police, executive engineer, and other District officers, there are 15 Government and aided private schools.

Belgharia (*Belghurriah*).—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; 7 miles from Calcutta. Aided vernacular school.

Beliá Náráyanpur.—Village on the right bank of the Páglá *nadí*, in Murshidábád District, Bengal. It was formerly in Bírbhúm, but was included in a tract of country recently transferred from that District to Murshidábád. In 1852 it was described as the largest and most important village in the iron-bearing tract of Bírbhúm, and contained 30 furnaces. In 1857, there were 62 furnaces smelting and reducing the iron ore.

Beliápatam (*Valárpatanam; Billipatam* of the Indian Atlas).—River in Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Rising from several sources in the Gháts on the borders of Coorg, it joins at the foot of the hills another large stream flowing from the range in the north-east of Manattána. Immediately below the junction, the united stream is spanned by the Irriti bridge, now (1882) in course of renewal, on the high road from the coast to Coorg and Mysore. From Irikur, where it becomes navigable all the year round for large boats, it flows westward to Irwapuya. Here a third stream, rising from the same sources, joins it; the river widening considerably at the confluence. It then flows past Beliápatam, and debouches into the sea 4 miles south-west of that town, in lat. 11° 57′ N., long. 75° 21′ E. The numerous plantations of areca and cocoa-nut palms make the scenery of the lower streams very picturesque.

Beliápatam (*Valárpatanam, Malayálim,* Big-town; sometimes supposed to be the *Jarfatton* of Ibn Batuta).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 55′ N., long. 75° 25′ E. Situated on the left bank of the Beliápatam river, about 4 miles from its mouth, and the same distance from the cantonment of Cannanore. It possesses a

thriving trade, steamers occasionally calling at the river mouth. In 1735, the Company obtained permission from the Rájá of Kolattiri (Chirakkal) to build a fort (named Mádakkara) near this place; and, as a precaution against the transport of pepper and cardamoms by the river, the grant goes on to say, 'Be careful that our enemy, Kánara, does not enter the said river in any of his vessels.' Near Beliápatam, Haidar Ali, in his first descent upon Malabar, gained a signal victory. He used a fleet to transport his horsemen across the river, and the enemy, unaccustomed to cavalry, fled in confusion. A sacred temple stands to the south-east of the town.—*See* SRIKUNDAPURAM.

Belikeri.—Seaport and village in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency, situated 13 miles south of Kárwár town, in lat. 14° 42′ 45″ N., long. 74° 19′ E. The village is famed as a local sanitarium, and contains a large bungalow situated on the sea-shore. Population (1881) 1066.

Belká.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief trade, jute and mustard.

Belkherá.—Village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) Sub-division, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2033, namely, Hindus, 1640; Muhammadans, 136; Jains, 41; aboriginal tribes, 216.

Belkuchí.—Town in Pabná District, Bengal; situated on a branch of the Jumná river, which is navigable only in the rainy season. Lat. 24° 19′ 35″ N., long. 89° 47′ 10″ E. Considerable trade is carried on in jute, cloth, rice, and other goods.

Bellágúpá. —Village in Ráidrug *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 1719. It marks the commencement of the great unbroken plain of black cotton soil which stretches hence to the Tungábhadra river. Near Bellágúpá are to be seen some curious gallows, with chains and iron cages attached, in which the remains of criminals were formerly exposed.

Bellamkondá (*Billam-Kondá*, Telugu, 'The Hill of the Cave').—Hill in Kistná District, Madras Presidency; 1569 feet above the level of the sea, crowned with the ruins of an old fortress. Taken by Krishna Raya *circ.* 1515, and by Sultán Kulí Kutab Sháh, of Golconda, in 1531 and 1578. Lat. 16° 30′ 40″ N., long. 80° 3′ 30″ E. A village of the same name stands on the high road from Gantúr to Nelkonda, at the foot of the hill.

Bellary (*Ballári*, *Valahári*).—District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 14° 14′ and 15° 57′ N. lat., and 75° 45′ and 77° 40′ E. long.; area (including the native State of Sandúr) 5904 square miles; population in 1881 (including the State of Sandúr, 10,532), 736,807. The river Tungábhadra bounds it on the north and north-west, separating it from the territories of the Nizám; on the east lie the Districts of Anantápur and Karnúl (Kurnool); on the south is the District of

Chitaldrúg in the Mysore State; and on the west, the river Tungábhadra separates it from Dhárwár District of the Bombay Presidency. In point of size, Bellary now ranks twelfth, and in population eighteenth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency; before a part of it was formed into the new District of Anantápur, it ranked second in area, and thirteenth in population. It is sub-divided into 8 *táluks*, and contains within its limits the native State of Sandúr, which has an area of 164 square miles. The number of inhabited villages is 1174, and of towns, 10. Land revenue (1881–82), £185,549; total revenue (gross), £253,513.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the District is a vast surface of treeless plain, broken at rare intervals by granite masses that spring abruptly from the surrounding sheet of black cotton soil, like rocks from the sea. Bellary is in fact an extensive plateau, tilted up in the west on the shoulders of the Gháts, and sloping down towards the eastern coast. At Belgáum, on the west, the height of the plain is 2568 feet, and at Dhárwár 2586 feet above the sea level; at Gemtakal junction station of the Madras Railway, near the eastern boundary of the District, the elevation is 1451 feet. Water is very scarce throughout, and vegetation is accordingly rare. The Tungábhadra, forming the northern boundary, contains water all the year round, and in the rainy season swells to formidable dimensions; its southern tributaries, the Hagari, the Vedavatí, and others, drain the District, and on its banks stand the towns of Hampságra, Hospet, Sirugúpá, Hampi, Kampli; at Rámpur a fine bridge of 52 piers carries the railway across the stream. The Vedavatí rises in Mysore, and after a course of 125 miles in the District joins the Tungábhadra near Halikota. Though very shallow for two-thirds of the year, this river when in flood overflows its banks, and in 1851 washed away the town of Guliem. The only hill ranges worthy of note are situated in the vicinity of Sandúr and Kampli in the west, and the Lanká Malla in the east; between these, scattered generally over the District, occur detached masses of granitic rock. Iron of good quality abounds, and copper, lead, antimony, manganese, limestone, and alum are all found. Salt and saltpetre are extracted from the soil. The fauna of the District includes among mammals, the tiger, panther, hunting leopard, wolf, black bear, hyæna, wild boar, antelope, and *sámbhar* deer; the first and last being very rare. Among birds, the order of *Raptores* is largely represented: the bustard, florican, pea-fowl, partridge, quail, snipe, goose, and water-fowl afford excellent sport. Venomous snakes abound. The flora is scanty,—the *babúl* (Acacia Arabica), *bér* (Zizyphus jujuba), and wild date (Elate sylvestris) being the chief indigenous trees; but in groves and gardens are found the mango, tamarind, cocoa-nut palm, banyan, and *ním*.

History.—The historical details which follow relate to the old District

of Bellary, before Anantápur District was formed. Within the Hospet *táluk* of Bellary lies the site of the ancient city of VIJAYANAGAR, and its annals therefore date back to the first Muhammadan invasion of the Deccan, in the 14th century. But it is not until 1640, when Sivají, the Maráthá, received a formal grant from the Sultán of Bíjapur of the forts of Bellary and Adoni, with the country adjacent, that the tract corresponding to the present District may be said to have entered upon a separate history. The District round Gúti (Gooty) remained subject to Golconda, but farther south (yet still within the old District of Bellary) the Pálegárs of Ráidrúg, Anantápur, and Harpanhalli became tributary to the Maráthás. Sivají died in 1680, and soon afterwards Aurangzeb advanced upon the Deccan with the Imperial army and overran the District. His authority, however, was never formally established; and the revenues of Bellary were farmed out to the Pálegárs, who deducted what they chose for military and other expenses, and remitted the balance to the Imperial treasury. After the death of Aurangzeb, and the rise of the Nizám's power, several of the Bellary chiefs, notably those of Gúti (Gooty) and Sándúr, asserted a semi-independence. Meanwhile Mysore had risen to strength; and, on the death of the Nizám, Haidar Ali, the usurper of the Mysore throne, accepting the invitation of Basálat Jang, the governor of Adoni, to assist him against the Maráthás, overran the District of Bellary. The Maráthás soon took the field in force to regain the country and fortresses they had lost; and Haidar Ali, defeated at Rattihalli, was compelled to abandon all his conquests except Ráidrúg, Chitaldrúg, and Harpanhalli.

The Mysore war broke out in 1767, and Haidar Ali, to recruit his finances, began to levy contributions from the surrounding Districts. Gooty, however, again resisted his demands, and at Bellary, then a dependency of Adoni, he fared no better. But soon afterwards (1774) the Pálegár of Bellary, Basálat Jang, withheld payment from the Nizám, and M. Lally was sent with a force to reduce him to obedience. He appealed for help to Haidar, who defeated the Adoni troops, but kept Bellary for himself. A third attempt upon Gooty was successful; and, making it his head-quarters, Haidar continued to hold his own for two years against both the Maráthás and the Nizám. Throughout these campaigns the Pálegárs of Chitaldrúg, Ráidrúg, Harpanhalli, and other divisions of the District, acted as the acknowledged tributaries of Mysore. On Haidar's death all asserted their independence; but Tipu, who had succeeded his father, captured their fortresses one after the other, put the chiefs of Ráidrúg and Harpanhalli to death as a warning to the rest, and collected all their arms and stores in the strongholds of Gooty and Bellary. But, arousing the hostility of the British Government, Tipu was in 1789 involved in war; and on the

conclusion of peace, and the partition of Tipu's last conquests, the Bellary District was made over to the Nizám. War, however, again broke out; and on the capture of Seringapatam and death of Tipu (1799), a redistribution was effected—Bellary District being divided between the Nizám and the Peshwá.

In 1800, the Peshwá's share was resumed; and the Nizám, in exchange for a subsidiary force of British troops, ceded to the Company the tract acquired by the treaties of 1792 and 1799, including Adoni and the remainder of the District of Bellary. The first attempt of the Company to collect the revenue of their new territory provoked a general rebellion of the Pálegárs, but a force under General Campbell expelled the more turbulent from their estates, and awed the rest into submission. The revenue administration was then taken out of their hands entirely, and the maintenance of armed bodies prohibited, the whole of the ceded Districts being formed into a Commissionership under Colonel Monro as principal Collector (1800), and on his retirement (1807) re-cast into the two Districts of Cuddapah and Bellary, with a Collector to each.

Since that date the peace of the District has been only twice disturbed. In 1818, the Pindárís made a raid, plundering Harpanhalli and making ineffectual assaults on Kudlighi and Ráidrúg. A force was despatched from Bellary, and without difficulty expelled the marauders. In 1857 there was a rising in Dhárwár District, and the *tahsíldár* of Harpanhalli joined the insurgents with a force collected within his jurisdiction. They marched upon Rámandrúg, but were overtaken by British troops at Kopála. Their defences were stormed by a wing of the 74th Highlanders, and the disturbance was quelled.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned a total population for the present District of Bellary (including the State of Sándúr, 10,532) of 736,807 persons, as compared with 926,751 in 1871, or a decrease of 20·5 per cent., due to the famine of 1876–78. The population inhabited 10 towns and 1174 villages, in an area of 5904 square miles, and occupied 144,290 houses. Number of persons per square mile, 125, varying from 177 in Hospet *táluk* to 64 in Sándúr; number per occupied house, 5·2. In point of density Bellary stands eighteenth among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. The males numbered 373,948, the females 362,859, the proportion being 508 males to 492 females in every 1000 of the population. Of children under 10 years, there were 78,204 boys and 80,957 girls: total, 159,161. Classified according to religion, 662,072, or 89·8 per cent. of the total population, are Hindus; 69,767, or 9·5 per cent., are Muhammadans; 4140, or 0·5 per cent., are Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics; 620 are Jains; and 'others,' 208. Among the Christians are included 552 Europeans and 127 Eurasians. Classified according to sect, the Hindus are nearly

equally divided between Siva and Vishnu worshippers, the small remainder being returned as 'Lingáyats and others.' Classified according to caste, the Hindu population was distributed as follows:—Bráhmans, 15,375, or 2·3 per cent.; Kshattriyas, 2622, or 0·4 per cent.; Shetties (traders), 11,260, or 1·7 per cent.; Vallálars (agriculturists), 99,893, or 15·1 per cent.; Idáiyars (shepherds), 97,955, or 14·8 per cent.; Kammálars (artisans), 22,559, or 3·4 per cent.; Kaikalars (weavers), 28,668, or 4·3 per cent.; Vanniyans (labourers), 2789, or 0·4 per cent.; Kushavans (potters), 6191, or 0·9 per cent.; Satánís (mixed castes), 46,891, or 7·1 per cent.; Shembadavans (fishermen), 124,906, or 18·8 per cent.; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 6290, or 0·9 per cent.; Ambattan (barbers), 6189, or 0·9 per cent.; Vannáns (washermen), 13,838, or 2·1 per cent.; Pariahs, 84,530, or 12·7 per cent.; 'others,' 91,634, or 13·8 per cent. The Muhammadans are almost entirely Sunnís. Classified according to occupations, 10,795 were returned as belonging to Class I., or professional, of whom 612 were females; 4106 to Class II., or domestic, of whom 1407 were females; 10,543 to Class III., or commercial, of whom 1923 were females; 301,351 to Class IV., or agricultural, of whom 118,152 were females; 94,055 to Class V., or industrial, of whom 45,124 were females; and 315,957 to Class VI., or indefinite and non-productive, of whom 195,641 were females. About 58·9 per cent. are returned as workers, on whom the remaining 41·1 per cent. of the population depend. Among the males, 69·8 per cent., and among the females, 47·7 per cent., were workers. The only caste calling for special notice is the vagrant Koráchavandlu—the distinctive criminal class of the District. They speak a gipsy dialect of their own, and their features bespeak a Tartar origin. In manners and customs they differ radically from all their neighbours. Their houses are of mats woven from water-grass; they eat three times a day, and rats and mice find a regular place in their dietary. They revere neither temples nor Bráhmans, and bury their unmarried dead. Early marriages are unknown among them, and a man can have only one lawful wife. The proportion of educated persons to the total population of each religion was—Hindus, males 12·6 per cent., females 0·4; Muhammadans, males 11·1 per cent., females 0·7; Christians, males 57·9 per cent., females 27·6.

The chief among the 10 towns returned in the Census report of 1881 as being in the present District of Bellary are—BELLARY, the head-quarters of the District, with a population (including the garrison) of 53,460; ADONI, 22,441; HOSPET, 10,219; KAMPTI, 9828; RAIDRUG, 8766; YEMIGANUR, 6963; and HARPANHALLI, 6536.

Kánarese and Telugu are the languages spoken, the former language prevailing in the western, and both being used in the eastern *táluks.*

Agriculture.—Of the total area (3,762,286 acres), 3,574,504 were in 1881–82 returned as assessed; 40,154 acres for the first crop, and 1941 for the second,—total, 42,095 acres,—were cultivated under irrigation; and 1,365,639 were cultivated without irrigation: total cultivated area, 1,407,734 acres. The cultivable area not under cultivation was returned at 2,087,995 acres; pasture and forest lands, 98,347 acres; and barren or waste lands, 170,524 acres: total uncultivated area, 2,356,866 acres. Of the total area, 815,300 acres are held in *inám*, or revenue free. The cultivated area is officially divided into 'wet' and 'dry' lands. 'Dry' land is that in which there is no artificial irrigation. The chief crops are *cholam*, *rágí*, and *korra*, and on these depends the food supply of the masses. 'Wet' lands, or those artificially irrigated, are almost exclusively devoted to rice and sugar-cane. On other 'dry' lands are raised cocoa-nut, betel leaf, plantains, areca-nut, wheat, tobacco, chillies, turmeric, vegetables, and fruits. Cotton is grown on dry land, the *regar*, or 'black cotton soil,' being the soil always preferred, the out-turn on the red ferruginous or grey calcareous soils being on the average only 25 per cent. of that on the black soil. A fair crop would be 240 lbs. of uncleaned, or 60 lbs. of cleaned, cotton. Exotic varieties of cotton (Hinganghát, New Orleans, Sea Island, etc.) have been tried, and have hitherto failed. The total area under the various crops is thus estimated—grain crops, 1,117,878 acres; orchard and garden produce, 9881; tobacco, 4061; hemp and other drugs, 1237; condiments and spices, 6759; sugar-cane, 8448; sugar palms, etc., 2161; oil-seeds, 50,512; cotton, 205,895; indigo, 323; jute, 715; flax and other fibres, 664 acres. Manure, wherever obtainable, is applied, and the use of green foliage for this purpose, in 'wet' lands, is almost universal. No regular rotation of crops obtains, but the principle that two exhausting crops should not be sown successively on the same field is everywhere recognised.

According to the statistics of 1881–82, there were in the District 11,757 buffaloes, 120,883 bullocks, 49,560 cows, 9022 donkeys, 89,566 goats, 169,122 sheep, 694 horses, 2218 ponies, 112 mules, 77 camels, 13,764 pigs, 56 boats, 13,264 carts, and 58,983 ploughs. The prices of produce ruling in the District at the end of 1881–82, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were—for rice, 6s. 3d.; for wheat, 4s. 4½d.; for other grains, from 2s. to 4s. 9d.; for salt, 8s.; for sugar, 26s. 6d.; for linseed, 6s. 3d.; and for cotton, 7s. The price of field bullocks ranges from £3, 16s. to £10 a pair; and of sheep, 6s. to 7s. each. Buffaloes, though cheaper, are seldom used. The agricultural implements correspond in character to those in use in Europe, but are all of the most primitive kind. An improvement, however, has been remarked of late in many points. Thus the old cart with solid wheels of stone or wood, the axle revolving with the wheel, is giving place to open wheels, with tire, spokes, and

fixed axle. Again, in outbreaks of cattle distemper, the efficacy of segregation has of late been recognised.

The cultivated area is parcelled out into 76,087 separate holdings, the average holding being about 15 acres of 'dry' and 0·46 acres of 'wet' land; the average assessment is 1s. 5⅞d. per acre of 'dry,' and 11s. 4¼d. per acre of 'wet' land. Of the total number of landholders, 49,406, or more than half, occupy holdings paying less than £1; only about 13,337 occupy holdings paying more than £3 per annum. The 'wet' land of the District stands on the official register at 2 per cent. of the total area; the sources of irrigation being tanks of all sizes (454), river channels (101), spring channels (418), and wells (8731).

Prices have for many years been steadily rising; and where money payments obtain, agricultural labourers and ordinary artisans now receive double, and even treble, the wages given before 1850. The field labourers, however, are, as a rule, paid in kind, and the rise of prices, therefore, has not affected them. In other respects, the cultivator class has benefited, the cotton-growers notably, many of whom during the American war made considerable fortunes. Rice during 1840–50 averaged 24 lbs. for the shilling, between 1850–60 it rose to 20 lbs., and since 1860 has averaged 10 lbs. for the shilling; *cholam* during the same period rose from 58 to 38 and 23 lbs. for the shilling, and *rágí* from 62 to 46 and 25 lbs.; cotton also rose in value from 68 shillings per *candy* to 110 and 292 shillings.

Natural Calamities.—The earliest famine recorded is that of 1792–93. In that year rice sold at 4 lbs. for the shilling, and *cholam*, the staple food of the masses, at 12 lbs. for the shilling. In 1803, prices rose 300 per cent., and wholesale emigration took place. In 1833, the year of the Gantúr (Guntoor) famine, when in that District 150,000 persons, out of a total of 500,000, perished from want of food, cholera followed the famine, and in Gooty (Gúti) and Bellary 12,000 persons died during the outbreak. Grain riots occurred in several places, and there was a considerable mortality from starvation. Disasters, local in their incidence, accumulated in Bellary between the years 1851–54. A storm swept over the District, damaging the tanks and irrigation works, in 1851; and before the repairs were completed, heavy and unseasonable rainfall (1852) ruined the crops. In 1853, the total fall of rain was only 6 inches, and famine set in. One-third of the cattle in the District died, but owing to the prompt recourse to relief works the mortality among the people was not great. In 1866, the failure of the rains doubled the price of food, and relief works being opened, 21,000 persons crowded to them. Cholera broke out, and in many villages the death-rate was so high that the panic-stricken inhabitants ceased to burn or bury their dead. The storm of 1851, above referred to, was of remarkable violence, and, being accompanied by torrents of rain, swept away the towns of Guliem and

Nagaradona, as well as several villages, destroyed the roads and canals, and breached 253 of the largest tanks in the District. Much valuable land was rendered sterile by the deposits of sand, and the loss in property and cattle was enormous. Bellary formed one of the Districts most severely affected in the great famine of 1876–77. It was the centre of an extensive system of organized relief, both in the shape of public works and gratuitous distributions of food.

Commerce and Trade.—Among the agricultural products of the District, cotton takes the first place. In the raw state it is largely exported both to Madras and Bombay, where it is pronounced equal to the best Western growth; and the manufacture of cotton goods—cloth, rope, tape, and carpets—occupies large numbers of the people. Oil-seeds, sugar-cane, hemp, and indigo, all represent important mercantile interests. In woollen goods, the chief articles of export are the blankets of the Kudlighi *táluk*, for which there is a demand all over the Madras Presidency. The woollen carpets, however, cannot compete with those of Ellore and Mysore. Chintz-stamping still forms an important industry in the Gooty *táluk* of Anantápur District, where also there is a considerable manufacture of glass bangles. Iron-smelting is carried on in the Hospet and other *táluks*.

A portion of the Madras Railway (north-west line), 56 miles, runs just within the north-eastern boundary of the District, passing the town of Adoni, a branch line from Guntakal station, 32 miles in length, being carried due west to the town of Bellary. A section of the Southern Maráthá State Railway also falls within the District, running for a distance of 40 miles, due west, from Bellary to Hospet. There are 974 miles of imperial and local roads. A District road cess, levied at the rate of about 1½d. in every 2s. of land revenue, provides for the maintenance of the roads. The principal ferries over the Tungábhadra are at Hampságra, Hathalli, and Madavaram, and those over the Hagari at Permadavanhalli and Moka. The right of ferrying is rented out at about £900 per annum, which supplements the regular road fund. Numerous local funds contribute to the District revenue. The 'public bungalow fund,' derived from the fees paid by travellers for accommodation in the public rest-houses; the pound fund and the *chaultri* fund, derived from economies in the administration of the resources of endowed charities, sufficiently denote the institutions of the District. A District Gazette is published in the town of Bellary monthly, and a private printing-press is also maintained.

Administration.—Until 1808, when Bellary was first recognised as a separate District, its history forms part of that of the Ceded Provinces generally. With the rest it suffered throughout all the changes of government from anarchy and extortionate revenue collectors. In 1800, when the District was ceded to the Company, it was found that

30,000 armed men, in the pay of 80 different chiefs, were quartered upon the people, and maintained entirely by forcible requisitions from the cultivating classes. Colonel Monro, the first Collector, surveyed the Ceded Provinces, Bellary included; and, assessing the lands at something below the average of the nominal revenue under the Mysore rulers and the Nizám, settled for each field directly with the actual cultivator. The revenue collections from the Bellary *táluks*, during the nine years in which this system obtained, averaged annually £227,142. In 1808, the Ceded Tracts were divided into the two Districts of Bellary and Cuddapah; and when the system of triennial leases was introduced in the following year, the revenue collections in Bellary alone rose to £249,514 per annum. In 1812, the triennial leases were changed to decennial, the result being at the end of the ten years a decreased average of receipts, £243,207,—a decrease owing to the general reduction of assessment directed in 1820. In 1822, the original system of settling with the cultivators direct was reverted to, and a further general decrease of assessments introduced. The result was a further reduction of the average of land revenue, pure and simple, between the years 1822 and 1830 to £207,373 per annum; between 1830 and 1840 it rose to £292,000; between 1840 and 1850, fell again to £221,000; and between 1850 and 1869, rose to £336,000.

On the 5th January 1882, the old Bellary District was divided into the two Districts of Anantápur and Bellary. For administrative purposes the present District is sub-divided into the following 8 *táluks*, namely, ADONI, ALLUR, BELLARY, HARPANHALLI, HAVINHUDGALLI, HOSPET, KUDLIGHI, and RAIDRUG. Including Anantápur, the total net revenue of the District in 1881–82 amounted to £253,583, as follows: land revenue, £185,561; *ábkári* (spirits and drugs), £49,187; stamps, £15,617; assessed taxes, £3218. Under the name of *motarfa* a tax had from an early period been levied from the non-agricultural classes, and being continued under British administration until 1837, yielded, on the average, £28,206 per annum. In 1860, *motarfa* was formally abolished, and the income tax imposed. This in turn was abandoned in 1865, between which date and 1869 various substitutes, in the shape of licence and certificate taxes, were tried. In 1869 the income tax was again established, and was continued at various rates till 1873. The licence tax has been levied since 1878.

Civil justice is administered by four grades of courts,—the village *munsif's*; the District *munsif's*; the subordinate judge's; and the court of the District judge. The last is also the sessions court for criminal cases; subordinate to it are the village magistrates, the subordinate magistrates, and the full power European magistracy. For the confinement of prisoners there is a sub-jail in each *táluk*, with one District jail at Bellary. The last is capable of holding 400 prisoners.

The village police of the District aggregates a total strength of 1574. The regular police force numbered in 1881–82, 698 officers and men of all ranks, being in the proportion of 1 to every 1077 of the population. The total cost of maintenance of the force in that year amounted to £18,400. The municipalities are 2 in number—BELLARY and ADONI—with annual incomes of £8000 and £2000 respectively, expended yearly to almost the full amount in local improvements. Education of an elementary kind is carried on in the *piál* or village indigenous schools, of which there were in 1882, 267 with an average attendance of 4800 pupils, one or more of these schools being established in every considerable hamlet. For higher-class teaching, grants in aid are given to 10 schools, while 2 Anglo-vernacular and 1 Provincial school at Bellary with a daily attendance of 320 are supported by Government, the fees of the scholars covering only about a third of the expenses. The London Missionary Society and the Roman Catholic Church have old-established missions in the District, maintaining between them several schools and two asylums for the poor.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is extremely dry, the average annual rainfall being only 20 inches. The daily temperature ranges from 67° to 83° F. in November and December, and rises to an average of 93° during April, the yearly mean from January to October inclusive being 84°. Since 1820, eighteen years have been officially recorded as seasons of epidemic cholera, the mortality in 1845 being 18,000, and in 1866 over 20,000. Fever exists in an endemic form, but in 1834, 1841, and 1866, the mortality from this cause was especially high; in 1880 the number of deaths was returned at 9559. Ophthalmia is common, owing to the dryness of the atmosphere and the glare from the granite rocks. Cattle-disease was epidemic in 1842, 1843, and 1844; occurring again in 1847, 1848, and 1849. In 1857, the loss of cattle from murrain was very great, as also in 1868. Gratuitous medical advice and attendance is provided for the poorer classes by the civil dispensaries at Harpanhalli, Kadlighi, Allúr, Hospet, Adoni, and Bellary—the expenses being defrayed partly by local subscription, but mainly by municipal grants. These dispensaries, as a rule, are only resorted to by the poor after charms and exorcisms have failed. The mortuary returns for the District during the three years ending 1870 gave an average mortality of 21,000, or about 13 per thousand on the total population. In 1880 the total number of deaths from all causes amounted to 26,227, or about 16 per thousand. [For further information regarding Bellary, see the *Manual of the Bellary District*, by J. Kelsall, Esq., C.S. (Madras, 1872). Also the *Madras Census Report* for 1881, and the *Madras Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883. For the famine aspects of Bellary District, which are but slightly touched on in this

article, see the *Report of the Indian Famine Commission* (London, 1880), and its Appendices.]

Bellary.—*Táluk* of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Situated between lat. 14° 57′ and 15° 42′ N., and long. 76° 44′ and 77° 16′ E.; area, 925 square miles; containing 162 towns and villages, with 29,359 houses, and a total population in 1881 of 148,937, being 75,821 males, and 73,116 females. Land revenue (1881-82) £27,507; excise, £6620. The *táluk* lies in the angle formed by the Tungábhadra and Hagari rivers, a level expanse of black cotton soil. The Copper mountain, so called from the mines worked by Haidar Ali, and the Bellary Rock, on which the fort is built, are the only important physical features. Nearly two-thirds of the total area are under cultivation, of which about 7000 acres are artificially irrigated. The tanks, 5 in number, are all insignificant. The channels from the rivers irrigate only 4000 acres, and the normal rainfall is very light. This *táluk*, therefore, is considered one of the most arid in the District. It contains three civil and three revenue courts.

Bellary (*Valahari*).—Chief town of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 8′ 51″ N., long. 76° 57′ 15″ E.; houses, 10,611; population (1881) 53,460, namely, 34,636 Hindus, 15,068 Muhammadans, 3566 Christians (including the European garrison), and 190 'others;' municipal income (1881-82) £6000; incidence of taxation per head, 1s. 1½d. Being the head-quarters of the District Administration, and of a brigade of the Madras army, Bellary possesses all the public establishments and offices pertaining to a civil and military station of the first class. Situated on an arid plain that stretches from the foot of a mass of granitic rock, 450 feet in height and about 2 miles in circuit, the town is defended by two lines of fortifications. The upper fort crowns the rock, and being inaccessible in the face of even the smallest force, may be considered impregnable by assault. The lower fort, containing the arsenal, guards the eastern base. On this side stand several public buildings, including the post-office and commissariat stores. Southward stretches the native quarter, Cowle Bázár, Bruce-pettah, and Mellor-pettah, containing the finest military market in Southern India. A large tank, nearly 3 miles in circumference when quite full, but which, being very shallow, is as a rule dry for a part of every year, lies on this side of the rock. On the west are grouped the regimental lines, substantial buildings with accommodation for two European and two Native regiments; the present force consists of one regiment of British infantry, a battery of artillery, two regiments of Native infantry, and one of Native cavalry—total strength, 2809. On the northern side stand the civil lines, with the public offices, churches, dispensary, and school, railway station and telegraph office. By rail, Madras is 305 miles distant.

The climate being very dry (in consequence of the winds passing over such an extent of heated plain), Bellary is considered a healthy station; but the heat is great, the mean registered in April being 93° F., and the normal annual rainfall amounts to only 16½ inches. Of late years, water has been scarce, having fallen to a lower level in the wells. The old springs seem to be drying up, and much of the water now produced is too brackish for use, owing to the presence of chloride of soda and carbonate of lime in large proportions in the soil. Trees are grown with greater difficulty, and gardens are becoming few. The opening of the railway has given an impetus, however, to the cotton traffic and the trade of the town. No local manufactures of importance exist. The history of Bellary dates from the reign of Krishna Ráya of Vijayanagar. A dependant of that court built a fort here; and his descendants, paying an annual tribute, held it for many years. Even after the battle of Tálikot, when Bellary had passed under the rule of the Muhammadan dynasty of Bíjapur, they continued in semi-independent possession. In 1650, the Rájá of Bellary defeated the descendant of the Vijayanagar Rájás, who had claimed tribute from him, and for a century the feud continued between the two families. But the District then passed, with its neighbours, into the hands of the Nizám; and Bellary was given as part of the estate of Adoni to Basálat Jang, the Nizám's brother. Being called upon for tribute, the Rájá rashly appealed for help to Haidar Ali, who at once advanced upon the place by forced marches, defeated the Nizám's troops in a battle at the foot of the rock, and seized the fort for himself. The present fortifications were built by a staff of French engineers—tradition adding that, after the new citadel had been completed, Haidar Ali hanged the French engineers at the gate, as he found that his fort could be commanded by a neighbouring rock higher than the site selected. Till 1792, Tipu Sultán remained in possession, but in that year his stronghold fell by the partition treaty to the Nizám, by whom it was ceded in 1800 to the British Government.

Bellávi.—Village in Tumkúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 25′ N., long. 77° 5′ E.; population (1881) 1263. The streets are wide, with uniformly built shops. At the fair held weekly on Monday, trade is carried on to the value of £2000. Great mart for export products.

Belo.—Village in the *táluk* of Sujáwal, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 44′ N., long. 68° 8′ 30″ E.; 4 miles from the river Indus and the head-quarters station of the *táluk*. Distant 32¾ miles from Mughalbin, and 10½ miles from Dero. Police station, *dharmsála* for travellers, and post-office. The Hindu population consists chiefly of Lohános and Bhátias; and the Muhammadan population of Sayyids and Muhánas.

Belona.—Town in Katol *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated on the banks of a small tributary of the Wardhá, 4 miles north-west of Mowar town. Population (1881) 3269, namely, Hindus, 3189; Muhammadans, 38; Jains, 25; aboriginal tribes, 17. A purely agricultural town, with a school and market place.

Belsand Kalan.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the old Bághmatí river, about 27 miles from Muzaffarpur on the Kantái and Sítámarhí road, and 13 miles from Sítámarhí town. Lat. 26° 26′ 48″ N., long. 85° 26′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2403, namely, 1986 Hindus, 414 Muhammadans, and 3 Christians. Indigo factory, primary vernacular school, and police station.

Belúr.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State. Area, 236 square miles. Land revenue, exclusive of water rates, (1881–82) £9402.

Belúr.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State; on the right bank of Yagáchi river; 23 miles by road north-west of Hassan. Lat. 13° 9′ 45″ N., long. 75° 54′ 40″ E.; population (1881) 2917. An ancient city, known in the Puránas and on inscriptions as *Velapura*, and locally regarded as the *Dakshina Váranási* or Southern Benares. It owes its sanctity to the celebrated temple of Chenna Kesava, adorned with carvings and sculptures from the master hand of Jakanácharjya. This building was erected and endowed by a king of the Hoysala Ballála dynasty, on the occasion of his conversion from the Jain faith to the worship of Vishnu, about the middle of the 12th century. The annual festival, held for five days in April, is attended by 5000 persons. Head-quarters of *táluk* of the same name.

Ben.—A sluggish stream in Hoshiárpur and Jalandhar (Jullundur) Districts, Punjab. Known as the East or White (*Safed*) Ben, to distinguish it from another stream of the same name in Kápúrthála territory. Formed by the confluence of torrents from the Siwálik Hills; skirts for 35 miles the boundary between Hoshiárpur and Jalandhar, during which it receives at right angles numerous affluents from the hills to the north-east; turns westward near the town of Malakpur; follows a serpentine course through the plain, and falls into the Sutlej (Satlaj) 4 miles above its junction with the (Beas) Biás. Crossed by bridge on Grand Trunk Road 3 miles from Jalandhar cantonment; fordable in cold weather. Banks too steep to admit of irrigation by overflow, but watering is practised by means of Persian wheels. The West or Black (*Siyah*) Ben also rises in the Siwáliks, in Parganá Dasurya, runs through Hoshiárpur and the Kápúrthála State, and falls into the Beas 10 miles above its junction with the Sutlej. Bridge on Grand Trunk Road beyond Diálpur in Kápúrthála.

Ben.—Small stream in Gurdáspur District, Punjab, formed by the junction of several brooks enclosing the town of Sukhuchak. Passes to east of Shakargarh, crosses roads from Gurdáspur to Shakargarh and

Siálkot, and falls into the Rávi almost opposite Dera Nának. Length about 25 miles. Slender thread of water in dry weather; large volume during rains. Much used for purposes of irrigation.

Benares (*Banáras*).—A Division under a Commissioner in the North-Western Provinces, comprising the seven Districts of AZAMGARH, MIRZAPUR, BENARES, GHAZIPUR, GORAKHPUR, BASTI, and BALLIA, each of which see separately; lying between 23° 52′ 15″ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 82° 9′ 45″ and 84° 40′ 15″ E. long.; area, 18,337 square miles; population (1881) 9,820,728, namely, Hindus, 8,759,446; Muhammadans, 1,056,351; Sikhs, 432; Jains, 207; Brahmos, 2; Christians, 4237; Jews, 50; Pársís, 3. Number of villages, 29,694; occupied houses, 1,544,433; average density of population, 535 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·62; houses per square mile, 84·2; persons per house, 6·3. Of high-caste Hindus, Bráhmans number 976,718, or 11·15 per cent., and Rájputs 590,440, or 6·74 per cent. of the Hindu population. The Káyasths or writer caste are returned at 134,755; and the Baniyás, or traders, at 211,478. The Bhars, the ancient dominant race in the North-Western Provinces, previous to Rájput and Muhammadan ascendancy, but now a crushed and depressed remnant of labourers and poor cultivators, are nearly all found in the Benares Division, where they number 301,518, out of a provincial total of 349,113. The other Hindu castes numbering over 50,000, are—Chamárs, the most numerous caste in the Division, 1,268,993, or 14·49 per cent. of the Hindu population; Ahírs, 1,176,593, or 13·43 per cent.; Káchhis, 423,743; Kúrmís, 428,626; Káhárs, 345,195; Mallahs, 343,321; Telís, 219,023; Loniás, 211,061; Bhuinhárs, 188,003; Lohárs, 177,920; Kumbhárs, 166,025; Kalwars, 122,649; Naís, 114,810; Dhobís, 113,869; Pásís, 112,628; Gadariyás, 81,875; Tambulís, 80,454; Korís, 73,750; Barhais, 66,685; and Sonárs, 61,143. Of the Muhammadan population, 1,034,949 were returned by sect as Sunnís, and 21,402 as Shiás. By race, the Muhammadans include 8501 Rájputs, 421 Gújars, 1 Ját, and 25 Mewátis. The Christian community consist of 1525 Europeans, 506 Eurasians, 1 Armenian, and 2205 native converts. The Division contains 45 towns with upwards of 5000 inhabitants, the total urban population being 693,071, against 9,127,657 forming the rural population. Of the 29,694 villages and towns, no less than 15,316 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 9586 from two to five hundred; 3386 from five hundred to a thousand; 1089 from one to two thousand; 187 from two to three thousand; and 85 from three to five thousand; the remainder being towns of over five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officers, Government officials, and the learned professions, 53,636;

(2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 16,952; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 79,377; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 2,415,155; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans, 347,861; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, male children, and unspecified, 2,009,632. The total male adult agricultural population is returned at 2,402,483, cultivating an average area of 2·67 acres each. The entire agricultural population, however, wholly dependent on the soil, amounts to 7,515,510, or 76·53 per cent. of the Divisional population. Of the total area of 18,337 square miles, 15,543 square miles are assessed for the payment of Government revenue, of which 9569 square miles are actually under cultivation, 2520 square miles cultivable, and the remainder uncultivable waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £970,192, or an average of 3s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre; total amount of rent, including cesses, £2,020,810, or an average of 6s. 3½d. per cultivated acre. The administrative staff, with the Commissioner of the Division at its head, consists of 94 civil and revenue judges of all sorts, and 101 magistrates; strength of regular police, 5096 men, besides a large body of village watchmen, maintained by the landholders and cultivators, either by money payments or rent-free grants of land. Gross imperial revenue, £1,064,333; cost of officials and police, £133,400.

Benares.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 8′ 30″ and 25° 32′ 30″ N. lat., and between 82° 42′ and 83° 35′ 30″ E. long.; area, 998 square miles; population (1881) 892,694 souls. Benares is a District in the Division of the same name, and is bounded on the north by Gházipur and Jaunpur; on the west and south by Mírzapur; and on the east by Sháhábád in Bengal. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of BENARES.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Benares forms part of the alluvial valley deposited by the river Ganges, and occupies an irregular parallelogram on either bank of the sacred stream. The surface consists of a level plain, with a gentle upward slope on each side from the central depression; and the general monotony of its cultivated fields is only broken by the ravines of two tiny streamlets—the Barna in the west and the Nand in the north—and by the deep gorges and precipitous cliffs of the Karamnása on the south-eastern boundary. The Ganges enters the District as a very large river, augmented at the point of leaving Allahábád by the Jumna (Jamuná), and joined 16 miles below Benares city by the waters of the Gúmti. Before reaching the confines of Gházipur, it presents a magnificent expanse of 4 miles in breadth during the rainy season. The Gúmti also flows through the

District for a course of some 22 miles; while the Karamnása skirts the south-eastern border, a heavy stream after rains, but almost dry during the hot months, though subject, like other hill rivers, to sudden flushes, which produce considerable inundations. The only other permanent water-course is that of the Barna Nadí, whose bed would run dry in the cold weather were it not prevented by a dam thrown across the slender stream about a mile above its confluence with the Ganges. Three small marshy lakes, known as the Báripur, Koth, and Kowár *jhils*, occupy hollows in the northern plain. The District has no forests or other waste lands of any importance, every available acre having been long brought under cultivation, and planted with a rich luxuriance of cereals or sugar-cane; while tiny hamlets lie thickly scattered in every direction over the face of the country. A few patches of barren *úsár*, or saline efflorescence, occur here and there among the uplands, but much less commonly than in the Districts farther west; while jungle is only to be found along the ravines of the minor rivers. Beasts of prey are consequently rare, but hares, squirrels, porcupines, and monkeys abound; and wild-fowl congregate in numbers on the lakes and rivers.

History.—Although the city of Benares, the metropolis of Hinduism, can trace its origin to the very earliest period of Aryan colonization in India, yet the District at large can scarcely be said to possess any separate history of its own until the middle of the 18th century. The antiquities and ancient annals of Benares city itself will be found under the proper heading. During the Musalmán period, the District was ruled by the Nawábs of Oudh, till ceded with Gházipur to the British in 1775. The ancestors of the present Mahárájá of Benares had already risen to importance under the Oudh Wazírs. In 1737, Mansa Rám, the founder of the family greatness, acquired possession of a fortress in Jaunpur District, and next year obtained for his son, Balwant Singh, the title of Rájá, and the three *sarkárs* of Jaunpur, Chanár, and Benares. Mansa Rám died in 1740; but Rájá Balwant Singh successfully followed up his father's policy. Through a long course of years he endeavoured to make himself practically independent of the Wazír, his lord-paramount, by building or seizing a line of fortresses on a strong strategical basis south of the Ganges. Step by step he acquired new strips of territory, and strengthened each acquisition by fresh military works.

In 1763, the Rájá joined the Emperor Sháh Alam and the Wazír Shujá-ud-daulá in their invasion of Bengal. After the disastrous battle of Baxar, however, he went over to the English camp, and prudently sought the protection of the conquerors. By the agreement of 1764, Balwant Singh's estates were transferred from Oudh to the English; but the transfer was disapproved by the Court of Directors, and in

1765 the Benares territory was restored to Oudh, the Wazír consenting to guarantee the Rájá in the quiet enjoyment of his possessions. Balwant Singh died in 1770, and the Wazír endeavoured to use the opportunity thus afforded him of dispossessing his powerful vassals. The English, however, compelled him to recognise the succession of Chait Singh, an illegitimate son of the late Rájá. Five years later, the Wazír ceded the sovereignty of the Benares estate to the British, who confirmed Chait Singh in his holding by *sanad*, dated April 15, 1776.

The succeeding events are so generally known, and have been so acrimoniously discussed, that a very brief recapitulation will here suffice. In 1778, a tribute of 5 *lákhs* was levied upon Chait Singh for the maintenance of a battalion of *sipáhís;* similar demands were made in 1779 and 1780. In the latter year, our power in India being then threatened with a simultaneous attack on the part of Haidar Ali, the Nizám, and the Maráthás, the Governor-General, Warren Hastings, called upon the Rájá to furnish a cavalry contingent of 1500 men. The Rájá returned evasive answers, but did not send a single trooper. For this conduct, the Governor-General determined to inflict upon him a fine of 50 *lákhs*, or £500,000. In August 1781, Hastings arrived at Benares, and finding Chait Singh still insubordinate, gave orders that he should be arrested in his own house. A riot occurred, the little body of British troops was attacked and easily overcome, the Rájá fled to one of his strongholds, and a general rising took place in the city. Hastings, shut up with his slender retinue in Benares, found himself in a most critical position, from which he only extricated himself by flight to Chanár. The Rájá remained in open rebellion till the end of September, when the British troops collected and dispersed his followers. The Governor-General then returned to Benares, deposed Chait Singh, and recognised his nephew Mahípnáráyan as Rájá. Chait Singh retired to Gwalior, where he died in 1810. The criminal administration of the whole estate, and the civil administration of the city, were taken from the Rájá and assumed by the English.

Mahípnáráyan died in 1795, and was succeeded by his son, Uditnáráyan. On the death of the latter, in 1835, his estates descended to his nephew, the present Mahárájá, Iswari Prasád Náráyan. (*See* BENARES ESTATE.) When Wazír Ali, Nawáb of Oudh, was deposed by the British in 1798, he received orders to live at Benares. In January 1799, he attacked Mr. Cherry, the Governor-General's agent, and murdered him, with two other officers. The magistrate, whom he proceeded to assail, defended himself in his house till the cavalry arrived from Bitábar and rescued him. Wazír Ali escaped at the time, but was given up and confined for life in Calcutta.

From this period, English rule was never seriously disturbed till the Mutiny of 1857. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Benares

on the 15th of May. The 37th Native Infantry at once became disorderly, and it was determined to disarm them on the 1st of June. They replied to the order with a volley, but when it was returned they shortly dispersed. The Sikhs and Irregular Cavalry joined the mutineers. The civil officers, however, held the Mint and the treasury, and the rebellion went no further. Parties of Europeans passing up from Calcutta to the north-west sufficed to keep the city quiet, though in the District some disturbances took place, and Mr. Moore, the Joint Collector, was murdered at Gopíganj in Mírzápur District. Early in June, the Rájputs of Jaunpur marched to attack Benares, but on the 17th they were cut to pieces by an English force. Next day the erection of the fort at Rájghát was commenced, on a site which commands the whole city, and no breach of the peace afterwards occurred.

Population.—Benares is by far the most thickly populated District in the North-Western Provinces, having a density of 894 persons to the square mile; while Ballia, which ranks next, has 808; Jaunpur, 778; Azamgarh, 747, and Gházípur, 688. The population, which in 1872 numbered 794,039, had increased to 892,684 in 1881, or by 11·05 per cent. The Census of 1881, taken over an area of 998 square miles, disclosed the following results:—Total population, 892,684; number of villages, 1946; number of occupied houses, 111,563; persons per square mile, 894; villages per square mile, 1·9; houses per square mile, 111·7; persons per village, 459; persons per house, 8. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 450,784; females, 441,900; proportion of males, 50·5 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Hindus numbered 801,556; Musalmáns, 89,351; Christians, 1768; Jains, 7; and Pársís, 2. These figures show 90 per cent. of Hindus as against 10 per cent. of Muhammadans. The principal castes were represented as follows:—Bráhmans, 104,092; Rájputs, 53,930; Baniyás, 18,353; Ahírs, 80,088; Bhars, 36,407; Bhuinhars, 19,422; Chamárs, 101,091; Gadariás, 12,510; Káchhis, 41,834; Kahárs, 28,376; Kalwárs, 17,696; Káyasths, 15,548; Kumbhars, 15,237; Kúrmís, 29,849; Lohárs, 20,994; Loniás, 15,136; Mallahs, 9870; Nais, 10,314; Pásís, 5164; Sonárs, 7714; Tambulís, 5581; and Telís, 19,728. The District contains only two towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, Benares city, 193,025, and Rámnagar, 11,859. Except these two, the latter of which is rather a suburb than a separate town, there is no place of any importance in the District, and the dense population lives in small scattered hamlets, thickly and evenly dotted over the Gangetic plain. This condition well illustrates the difference between the Doáb and the eastern basin of the great river. The upper tract of country has its inhabitants collected together in considerable towns, once walled

and fortified, which afforded them protection in the days of Maráthá or Afghán incursions; while in the more peaceful lower region the population is equally distributed over the cultivated soil, only a small fraction being gathered together in large cities. The Mahárájá of Benares has a palace at Rámnagar, 2 miles above Benares, on the opposite or southern side. Colossal Buddhist remains exist at SARNATH.

The 1946 villages and towns are thus returned in point of population:—859 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 665 from two to five hundred; 324 from five hundred to a thousand; 82 from one to two thousand; 10 from two to three thousand; 4 from three to five thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the male population is grouped by the Census Report of 1881 into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officers, Government servants, and the learned professions, 12,536; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 4174; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 12,220; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 145,247; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans, 60,899; (6) indefinite and non-productive (consisting of 36,390 general labourers and 179,319 male children and unspecified), 215,709.

Agriculture.—Benares District has the smallest area of any in the North-Western Provinces proper, except the Tarái; its total extent being returned in 1881 at 998 square miles, of which 741 are cultivated, and only 69·6 returned as still available for cultivation. Most of the soil consists of a rich clay, more or less mixed with sand, and usually very fertile. The course of tillage is that common to the whole upper basin of the Ganges. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rain in June, and harvested in October and November. Rice may even be gathered in August, but cotton does not ripen for picking till February. *Bájrá*, *joár*, and other common food-grains form the remaining staples of this harvest. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other pulses. The harvests are a little earlier in Benares than in the Doáb and Rohilkhand Districts, owing to the dampness and comparative warmth of the winter, and the early commencement of the rainy season. The chief crops of the District comprise sugar-cane, Indian corn, barley, wheat, peas, indigo, and rice. *Moth* and *pát-san* (hemp) are sown with other crops, but not separately. Manure is employed, where obtainable, for both crops, and land lies fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. The same field is seldom planted for two harvests within a single year, the chief exception being in the case of rice lands, which often bear a

second crop of some other staple. Where small proprietors own the soil, each holder generally tills his own plot in person; but, as a rule, the greater portion is let out to cultivating tenants. The whole District is permanently settled, and the landlords are therefore unusually powerful and wealthy. They can raise their rents without restriction, and the number of tenants-at-will increases daily, as the older occupancy-holders die out for want of heirs, or lose their privileges from inability to pay the rent. The total male adult agricultural population is returned at 141,790, cultivating an average area of 3·98 acres each. The total agricultural population, however, wholly dependent on the soil, numbers 439,605, or 49·25 per cent. of the District population. Of the total area of 998 square miles, 971 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, and of which 723 square miles are cultivated: 66 square miles still available for cultivation; and 182 square miles uncultivable and waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £104,739, or an average of 4s. 6⅛d. per cultivated acre. Total rental actually paid by cultivators, £169,499, or an average of 7s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. In the city of Benares, owing to the wealth of its rich traders and bankers, and the constant influx of opulent pilgrims, the standard of living ranks decidedly higher than elsewhere in the North-Western Provinces; and the presence of a large Bengali element, bringing with it the habits and ideas of comfort which prevail in Calcutta, does much to keep up the tendency in that direction. But the crowded peasantry of the country *parganás* live in extreme poverty, and have little or nothing upon which they can fall back in seasons of distress. Wages and prices have risen of late years. Coolies and unskilled labourers now receive from 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women obtain about one-fifth less than men, while children are paid from one-half to one-third the wages of adults. The following were the average prices-current of food-grains in 1876:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; best rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájrá*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt. In 1882, wheat was 16½ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 9½d. per cwt.; best rice, 12½ *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 11½d. per cwt.; *joár*, 29¼ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9½d. per cwt.; and *bájrá*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Although Benares District suffers like its neighbours from drought, and from its natural consequence, famine, yet it appears to occupy an intermediate position between the centres of distress in Upper India and Bengal, so as to be less severely affected by scarcity than either of the regions to the east and west. In 1770, Benares was visited by famine in common with all the other Districts east of Allahábád, including those of Behar. In 1783, the dearth

pressed chiefly upon the western country; but Benares suffered somewhat, like all the tract to the west of the Karamnása, and grain riots occurred in the city. In 1803, it became necessary to offer a bounty of 15 rupees (£1, 10s.) on every 100 *maunds* of grain (about 3½ tons) imported from Bengal into Benares or Allahábád; yet the scarcity was not so severe as in Rohilkhand and the west. The great famine of 1837-38, which ravaged the whole North-Western Provinces, fell upon Benares with great severity, though less fiercely than in the Doáb. The dearth of 1860-61, which proved so fatal in the Upper Doáb and the Agra Division, did not reach Benares; while the Bengal famine of 1874 hardly touched the confines of the District.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of the District centres almost entirely in the city (*q.v.*). A considerable trade passes through from Jaunpur, Azamgarh, Gorakhpur, and Basti. Two lines of railroad traverse the District throughout the greater portion of its length. The East Indian Railway runs through the *parganás* south of the Ganges, with stations at Sakaldiha and Mughal Sarái; and sends off a branch line, 6 miles in length, which ends on the river bank just opposite Benares. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has its terminus at Benares, on the north bank of the Ganges, and runs north-west for 20 miles in this District, with stations at Seopur, Bábatpur, and Phúlpur. The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi also traverses the District from end to end, with a length of 44 miles, crossing the Ganges at Benares by a bridge of boats. Other good roads connect the city with Jaunpur, Ahraura, Sakaldiha, and Gházípur. The total length of made roads in the District in 1881 was 568½ miles.

Administration.—Benares is the head-quarters of a Commissioner, and the seat of a civil and session judgeship, which does not include any other District. The Commissioner of Benares is also agent for the Viceroy in his official relations with the Mahárájá of Benares, and *ex officio* superintendent of the BENARES FAMILY DOMAINS. The ordinary administrative staff of the District includes a Collector-Magistrate, 1 Joint Magistrate, 1 Assistant, and 2 Deputies, besides the usual medical, fiscal, and constabulary establishment. The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised in the District in 1880, amounted to £172,950; and in 1880-81 the imperial revenue was returned at £139,308, of which £89,480 was derived from the land. The District regular police force had a total strength, in 1880, of 553 men, besides a municipal and cantonment police of 453, maintained at a cost of £11,211, of which £7411 was contributed from provincial and £3800 from local funds; being at the rate of 1 policeman to every square mile and to every 903 persons of the population. Benares possesses two places of confinement—the central prison and the District jail. The former contained in 1880 a daily average number of

1546 criminals, of whom 174 were females; but these were recruited from all the Districts composing the Benares Division. The District jail and lock-up included, during the same year, a daily average of 553 prisoners, of whom 550 were males and 3 females. The postal establishment comprises 16 imperial and 2 provincial post-offices, and the telegraph is in operation at all the stations on both railways, as well as in the city.

The total number of schools receiving State aid or under inspection by the Education Department, in 1881–82, was 144, attended by 7190 pupils. There are also several unaided and uninspected schools in the District, regarding which no statistics are available. The Census Report of 1881 returns 9808 boys as being under instruction, and 37,635 other males as able to read and write, but not under instruction. These figures, however, must not be accepted as accurate, and are probably considerably below the mark. For fiscal and administrative purposes the District is divided into 2 *tahsíls* and 19 *parganás*. The only municipality is that of Benares, which had an income, in 1880–81, of £1749, or 1s. 2½d. per head of municipal population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Benares is one of the hottest and dampest in the North-Western Provinces. No really cold weather diversifies the year as in the upper country beyond Allahábád; and since the hot west winds have lost their force before reaching this District, *tattis* or grass mats fail to perform their function of cooling the air by evaporation. The temperature more nearly resembles that of Lower Bengal than that of the North-Western plains in general. The average mean monthly thermometrical readings for a period of 13 years, ending in 1880, are returned as follows:—January 60·1° F., February 66·5°, March 76·9°, April 86·7°, May 91·6°, June 91·6°, July 85·1°, August 84·5°, September 83·5°, October 78·5°, November 68·9°, December 60·4°. Yearly average, 77·80°. In 1880–81, the highest maximum temperature was 111·3° in June, and the lowest minimum 38·5° in January, the annual mean being 78·5°. The average total rainfall for about 30 years ending 1881 was 39·86 inches; the maximum during this period being 57·7 inches in 1861–62, and the minimum 21·6 inches in 1860–61. The rainfall in 1880 was only 26·36 inches, or 13·50 inches below the average. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1880 was 22,479, or 25·2 per 1000 of the population. The District contains 5 charitable dispensaries—4 in the city and suburbs, and 1 at Chandauli, on the south bank. In 1881 they afforded relief to a total of 57,678 persons. [For further particulars regarding Benares, see the forthcoming volume of the *North-Western Provinces Gazetteer*, and much interesting information in the volumes of extracts from the *Duncan Records*, printed at the Allahábád Government Press. Also

the Rev. Mr. Sherring's *Sacred City of the Hindus* (London : Trübner); the *North-Western Provinces Census Report* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Benares (or more correctly, *Váránasi* or *Banáras*).—City and cantonment in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, and administrative head-quarters of the District and Division. Lat. 25° 18′ 31″ N., long. 83° 3′ 4″ E. The city, exclusive of the cantonments, covers an area of 3448 acres, and contained in 1881 a population of 193,025, namely, Hindus, 147,230; Muhammadans, 45,529; and Christians, 266. The cantonment population of 6675 consists of 4104 Hindus, 1705 Muhammadans, 864 Christians, and 2 'others.' Benares, the religious metropolis of the Hindu faith, and first city of the North-Western Provinces (exclusive of Oudh) in population and importance, lies on the left or northern bank of the river Ganges, about 120 miles below its junction with the Jumna, at an elevation of 253 feet above sea level; distant from Calcutta 421 miles north-west, from Allahábád 74 miles east, and from Delhi 466 miles south-east. The Ganges forms a bay or crescent-shaped reach in front of the city, thus permitting the eye to take in at a single sweep the long line of its picturesque *ghâts* and splendid temples. The town is built of Chanár freestone, and consists of winding labyrinths and narrow alleys, lined by temples, mosques, or palaces, and crowded with pilgrims and busy citizens, camels, asses, horses, and sacred bulls. But though the view is everywhere obstructed within the city itself, along the bank of the Ganges is unrolled a magnificent panorama of palaces, capped by domes, minarets, and sacred buildings, in every variety of oriental architecture. The people spend a large part of their time praying, bathing, or lounging by the water-side. The *ghâts* are crowded with *fakírs* and other ash-besprinkled and almost naked ascetics, practising their devotions and life-long austerities. The city can be approached either by land or water. The Ganges affords a navigable highway for large steamships; the East Indian Railway has a station opposite Rájghát. A bridge of boats is maintained here during the hot and dry seasons by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway Company, who have a temporary line of railway from Benares cantonment to Rájghát. A ferry is kept up during the rains. Benares is at present the terminus of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, but a bridge across the Ganges at Rájghát, close to the bridge of boats, is now (1883) in course of construction, and the line will then run across the river to Mughal Sarái, and there join the East Indian Railway. The Grand Trunk Road and other good metalled ways lead over bridges on the Ganges or the Barna from every quarter. No walls or fortifications enclose the holy city. During the Mutiny, a fort erected at Rájghát overawed the disaffected section of the populace; but this has now been abandoned, owing to alleged

unhealthiness, though its position on an eminence commanding the passage of the river makes it the natural key of Benares and the surrounding country.

History.—From the earliest period of Aryan colonization in India, a city appears to have existed at the junction of the Barna with the Ganges. The name of Váránasí, converted into Banáras by transposition of the liquid consonants, frequently occurs in early Sanskrit literature. In the sixth century B.C., Gautama Buddha, on the eve of promulgating his new religion, fixed upon Benares as the first station for preaching the doctrine of *nirváná*, and took up his residence at SARNATH. Even before that time, Benares had apparently acquired a reputation as the most sacred city of the Hindu creed; it then became, for 800 years, the head-quarters of Buddhism; and about the 4th century after Christ it once more reverted to the ancient faith, whose metropolis it remains to the present day. Hwen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century, found the kingdom of Benares divided between the two creeds. He mentions the existence of 30 Buddhist monasteries and 100 Hindu temples. Sankar Achárjya, the great opponent of Buddhism and champion of the Sivaite sect, lived in Benares in the 7th century. After the annihilation of the rival faith in Upper India, the Sivaite Hindus rebuilt a considerable portion of the city, changing its site from the northern bank of the Barna to its present position on the angle enclosed between the southern shore and the Ganges.

Benares has shown a tendency to shift its position in different directions from the most ancient times. The oldest town occupied the site of Sárnáth, where colossal Buddhist remains still lie thickly scattered over the ground. At a later period, the centre of the city stood apparently north of the Barna. Mausoleums, mosques, *dargahs*, and Hindu temples, now in ruins, stud the vacant space to the north of the present city; thus showing that up till the Muhammadan period Benares lay close to the south bank of the Barna; while the modern frontage faces the Ganges alone, leaving an empty suburb to the north-east. Most of the existing buildings date no further back than the reign of Akbar. Muhammad Ghori took Benares in 1194 A.D., and the various Musalmán dynasties continued to hold it for 600 years. Nearly all the edifices in the city which can lay claim to any antiquity have been appropriated to Muhammadan purposes. The Musalmáns converted all the larger temples into mosques or tombs, and destroyed or mutilated the remainder, using their walls as quarries for building material. Alá-ud-dín boasted that he had razed to the ground 1000 shrines in Benares alone. The existing Hindu buildings are generally small, and often destitute of architectural merit or ornamental detail, owing apparently to the stringency of the Muhammadan rule.

During the 18th century, Benares fell into the hands of the Oudh Wazírs, under whom a family of local Rájás established their power in the surrounding country. The story of their rise to authority, the rebellion and deposition of Chait Singh, and the subsequent fortunes of their house, belong rather to the wider history of BENARES DISTRICT than to the special annals of the city. Benares was ceded to the British, with the remainder of Chait Singh's domain, in 1775, and a Resident was appointed to watch the interests of the new Government. Wazír Alí of Oudh, after his deposition, was compelled to live at Benares; and in 1799 he attacked and murdered Mr. Cherry, the Resident, with two other officers. The Wazír escaped for the time, but was afterwards captured and deported to Calcutta. During the Mutiny of 1857 a serious outbreak took place at Benares. On receipt of the news from Meerut, the 37th Native Infantry became mutinous, and resisted an order to disarm. The Sikhs and Irregular Cavalry joined the mutineers; but the whole body dispersed after being fired upon. The Europeans then fortified the Mint, in which the civil officers took up their abode. The frequent passage of troops from Calcutta westwards proved sufficient to overawe the mob of the city.

General Appearance, Architecture, etc.—Benares, or Kási, lies on the west bank of the Ganges, which flows nearly north and south as it passes before the city. The native town skirts the sacred river, with a constant succession of stone steps and ornamental façades. West of this crowded labyrinth stands the suburb of Síghra, the seat of the chief missionary institutions. Northward, towards the Barna, the Sikraul cantonments and parade ground stretch away to the bank of the smaller stream, which is here crossed by two bridges of stone and iron respectively. South of the Barna lie the church, post-office, and court-house; the civil station occupies the northern bank, while beyond comes a vacant cantonment, formerly used by European cavalry. Along the edge of the Ganges a precipitous cliff rises to a height of 100 feet, and numerous *ghâts* or bathing stairs descend by long flights from this elevation to the level of the stream below. At intervals a handsome shrine or picturesque temple, built close to the water's edge, breaks their line. The buildings on the edge of the cliff, being for the most part five or six storeys high, crowned with pinnacles or towers, add to the impressive effect.

Within the city, the streets contain many handsome houses, substantially built and elaborately decorated; but their narrow, dirty, and crowded state usually disappoints the visitor, after the high expectations aroused by the view from the river. The upper storeys often project beyond the lower floor, and small bridges thrown across the roadway occasionally connect the houses on opposite sides of the street. To prevent inspection from the neighbouring fronts, the

windows have been made extremely small. The façades are often painted in fantastic patterns, to represent the mythical episodes of Hindu theology. During the fine season most of the inhabitants sleep on the roofs of their houses. The town bristles with religious buildings, Hindu and Muhammadan. The temples of the ancient faith are set down at 1454, most of which are diminutive shrines, while the Musalmáns possess 272 mosques. Besides these regular places of worship, every niche, corner, and empty space upon the *gháts* and in the walls of houses is occupied by some religious image, mutilated statue, *linga*, or square-hewn sacred stone. Rájá Mán Singh of Jaipur is said to have presented 100,000 temples to the city in a single day. The chief buildings are too numerous to be fully noticed, but a few among them deserve special attention.

The temple at Durgá Kund, in the southern extremity of the city, has a great society of sacred monkeys attached to its precincts. It was erected by Ráni Bhawání during the last century, and is remarkable for its simple and graceful architecture. The Dasásamedh *ghát* forms one of the five sacred places of pilgrimage in Benares. Rájá Jai Singh's observatory, a handsome and substantial building, erected in 1693, overlooks the Mán Mandil *ghát.* Its founder reformed the calendar for the Emperor Muhammad Sháh. Close to the same spot stands the Nepálese temple, whose quaint and picturesque architecture unexpectedly betrays the influence of Chinese models. Surrounded by pure Hindu buildings, it strikes the eye at once alike by its novelty and by its excellent workmanship. A little above the observatory, the burning *ghát*, where the bodies of Hindus are reduced to ashes, leads down to the Ganges by a narrow, confined pathway, with numerous slabs of stone set up on end in honour of widows who have performed *sati.* The Well of Mani Karniki, filled with the sweat of Vishnu, forms one of the chief attractions for pilgrims, thousands of whom annually bathe in its fetid waters. Stone steps lead down to the edge, crowded with worshippers, whose sins are washed away by the efficacious spring. The graceful Tárakeswar shrine fronts the well.

The huge mass of Aurangzeb's mosque, built from the remains of a Hindu temple, towers conspicuously over the brink of a steep cliff, above the Pánchgangá *ghát*, with strong breastworks of masonry extending far down the bank. It is the most conspicuous building in the city when seen from the river; and on a nearer view becomes remarkable for its slender minarets, 147 feet in height, and slightly inclined from the perpendicular. Bhaironáth, the divine guardian and watchman of Benares, has a famous temple near the public gardens; while his sacred baton or stone club, 4 feet in height, is deposited in a separate shrine hard by. Close to it is the Gopál *mandír*, containing two gold images of Krishna. This temple, though not remarkable for beauty of architecture, ranks

first in wealth and in the richness of its furniture and jewels. The temple is daily attended by numbers of devotees. But the Bisheswar or golden temple, dedicated to Siva, may perhaps be selected without invidiousness as the holiest among all the holy places of the sacred city. It stands a short distance from the observatory, and contains the venerated symbol of the god, a plain Linga of uncarved stone. Bisheswar rules Benares as spiritual monarch, under whom Bhaironáth acts merely as minister and magistrate. The building has a central spire, and each corner is crowned by a dome. The temple was erected by Ahalya Bai, the Maráthá Princess of Indore. The Mahárájá Ranjít Singh of Lahore had the spire and domes covered with gold leaf, from which the temple derives its ordinary title. The Buddhist remains at SARNATH, about 4 miles from the city, will be described under their proper heading.

The most remarkable relic of early antiquity in Benares itself is the Lát Bhairo, a broken pillar, supposed to be a fragment of one among the many columns set up by the great Buddhist Emperor Asoka in the third century B.C. Many other fragmentary or mutilated monuments strew the ground outside the city, or form portions of Muhammadan edifices, into which they have been built as ready-made masonry. Few buildings of European origin deserve special mention. The most noteworthy is the Government college, a large structure in the perpendicular style, faced with Chanár freestone. Next to it rank the Prince of Wales Hospital, built by the gentry of Benares in commemoration of the visit of His Royal Highness to the city in 1876; and the Town Hall, a fine building, constructed at the expense of the late Mahárájá of Vizianágram, where the special magistrates hold their courts, and where public and other important meetings are held.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The wealth of Benares depends largely upon the constant influx of opulent pilgrims from every part of India, whose presence lends the same impetus to the local trade as that given to European watering-places by the season visitors. Many of the pilgrims are Rájás or other persons of importance, who bring considerable retinues, and become large benefactors to the various shrines and temples. Hindu princes of distant States pride themselves upon keeping up a 'town residence' in holy Kási. But besides the wealth which thus flows passively into the *bázárs* of Benares, a considerable trade is carried on by the merchants and bankers. The sugar, indigo, and saltpetre of the District find a market in the city. The trans-Gogra products of Gorakhpur and Basti, and the raw materials of Jaunpur, form large items in the through traffic of Benares. Manchester goods are imported in considerable quantities, and distributed to the neighbouring local centres. The chief manufactures comprise silks and shawls, cloth embroidered in gold and silver thread, gold filagree

work, jewellery, enchased brass vessels, and lacquered wooden toys; the last two are largely exported to England. The principal institutions are—the Queen's College, which has a roll of 700 students; the Normal School; missions in connection with the Church of England, the Baptist, and the London Missionary Societies; Jai Náráyan's College; the Benares Institute, a society mainly composed of native gentlemen, and devoted to literature, science, and social progress; and the Carmichael Library, consisting of a large collection of English and Oriental standard works, periodicals, and library. In 1880–81, the municipal income of Benares amounted to £17,495 (from *octroi* duties, £13,432), or 1s. 2½d. per head of municipal population.

Benares.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Benares District, North-Western Provinces, comprising all the portion of the District lying north of the Ganges, and including the city of Benares. Area (1881) 579 square miles, of which 402 are cultivated; land revenue at time of settlement, £62,163; total revenue, £66,006; rental paid by cultivators, £102,049; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 4½d. The *tahsíl* contained, in 1883, 4 civil and revenue and 13 criminal courts, with 15 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police force, 643 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 926.

Benares.—Estate, comprising the Family Domains of the Mahárájá of Benares, consisting of the *parganás* of Kaswar Rájá in Benares District and Gangápur and Bhadohí in Mírzápur District. The average rental of the estate, which has an area of 985 square miles, somewhat exceeds £80,000, of which nearly £30,000 is paid as revenue to the British Government. The estate is in political relation with the Government of the North-Western Provinces; and the Family Domains have been specially exempted from the operation of Act xviii. of 1871 (an Act for the levy of land rates for local purposes, North-Western Provinces). The Mahárájá, His Highness Srí Prasád Náráyan Singh Bahádur, G.C.S.I., is a Gautam Bráhman of the Bhuinhár clan. He has received a *sanad* giving him rights of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 13 guns. The family of the Mahárájá lay claim to great antiquity; but the real founder was Mansa Rám, whose son, Balwant Singh, marched with the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Alam, and the Nawáb of Oudh, Shujá-ud-daulá, to expel the British from Bengal. In this expedition, Balwant Singh acted a prudent part, and awaited the result of the battle of Baxar, after which he joined the British camp; and the *zamíndárí* was finally transferred to the British Government in 1775, subject to a tribute, and on condition of his adopting measures for the preservation of the peace of the country. In 1778, the Rájá was required to subsidize three battalions of Sepoys; and in 1780 he was also required to employ his cavalry for the general service of the State. Rájá Chait Singh, son of Balwant Singh, manifested great

reluctance to meet these demands, and was also believed to be disaffected, and to hold correspondence with the enemies of the British Government. He was accordingly arrested by order of Warren Hastings; but he escaped, collected troops, and headed a rebellion, which was crushed after a few petty skirmishes. Chait Singh was deprived of his estate, which was given to his nephew, Mahíp Singh, grandson of Balwant Singh, subject to a tribute. The present Mahárájá is a nephew of Mahíp Singh's son, and succeeded in 1835.

Bendamúrlanka.—Town in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. —*See* BANDAMURLANKA.

Bengal.—A Presidency of British India, comprising the whole river system of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, together with the upper waters of the Indus and its affluents; or, roughly speaking, all India north of the Vindhya Mountains. The various significations which the term 'Bengal' has borne at different times will be explained in the following article (BENGAL, LOWER). The Presidency of Bengal has now a historical rather than an administrative meaning, except in the Military Department, the Indian Army being still organised under three Commanders-in-Chief—for Bengal, Madras, and Bombay respectively—with the supreme direction vested in the Commander-in-Chief for Bengal. The Bengal Presidency includes the following five great Provinces, each presided over by a Local Government of its own, but all subject to the general control of the Government of India, with the Viceroy at its head. A full account of each of these Provinces will be found under their respective names. The Central Provinces were formed into a separate jurisdiction only in 1861, long after the term 'Bengal Presidency' had acquired its historical meaning. They are garrisoned partly from the Bengal Presidency, partly from that of Madras, and are not included in the following table.

THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY (1881).

(As returned in the *Imperial Census Report*, vol. ii.)

Name of Province.	Area. Sq. Miles.	Population.
1. Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, . .	187,222[1]	69,536,861
2. Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, ...	111,236[2]	44,849,619
3. Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, . .	142,449	22,712,120
4. Chief-Commissionership of Assam, . . .	46,341	4,881,426
5. Commissionership of Ajmere, ...	2,711	460,722
Total, . .	489,959	142,440,748

[1] Or 193,198, including unsurveyed tracts and areas of great rivers.

[2] Or 111,229, according to the *Provincial Census Report*.

Bengal (or as it is more precisely designated, '*Lower Bengal*'), the largest and most populous of the twelve local Governments of British India, comprising the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra; lies between 19° 18′ and 28° 15′ N. lat., and between 82° and 97° E. long. Excluding ASSAM, which was erected into a separate administration in February 1874, Bengal now includes the four great Provinces of Bengal Proper, Behar, Orissa, and Chhotá or Chutiá Nágpur. It forms a Lieutenant-Governorship, with a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 69,536,861 souls; and an area of 193,198 square miles, or 187,222 square miles, excluding rivers, lakes, and certain unsurveyed tracts. Although ruled by a Lieutenant-Governor, Bengal forms the largest Administrative Division of India. It contains, exclusive of Assam, one-third of the total population of British India, and yields a gross revenue of 17 to 18 millions sterling, or one-third of the actual revenues of the Indian Empire. It is bounded on the north by Nepál and Bhután; on the east by Assam, and by an unexplored mountainous region which separates it from China and Northern Burma; on the south by the Bay of Bengal, Madras, and the Central Provinces; and on the west by the plateau of the Central India Agency, and by an imaginary line running between it and the adjoining Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces.

The word Bengal is derived from Sanskrit geography, and applies strictly to the country stretching south-east from Bhágalpur to the sea. The ancient Banga formed one of the five outlying kingdoms of Aryan India, and was practically conterminous with the Delta of Bengal. It derived its name, according to the etymology of the Pandits, from a prince of the Mahábhárata, to whose portion it fell on the original partition of the country among the Lunar race of Delhi. But a city called Bangálá, of which no trace remains, found its way into the old maps, near Chittagong, probably from the statements of Louis Varthema. It is pretty certain, however, that Varthema's travels never extended beyond the Malabar coast. The Arabs had a custom of applying the name of a country to its chief city, and it was probably in this way that Varthema and other early writers picked up the idea of a great town called Bengal.

The name Bangálá first came into use about the 13th century. It is used by Marco Polo (1250–1323); and by his contemporary Rashid-ud-dín (1247–1318). Under Musalmán rule, it applied specifically to the Gangetic delta, like the Banga of Sanskrit times, although the later Muhammadan conquests to the east of the Brahmaputra were eventually included within it. In their distribution of the country for fiscal purposes, it formed the central Province of a Governorship, including Behar on the north-west, and Orissa on the south-west, jointly ruled by one Deputy of the Delhi Emperor. Under the English, the

name has at different periods borne very different significations. Francis Fernandez applies it to the country from the extreme east of Chittagong to Point Palmyras in Orissa, with a coast line which Purchas estimates at 600 miles, running inland for the same distance, and watered by the Ganges. This territory would include the Muhammadan Province of Bengal, with parts of Behar and Orissa. The loose idea thus derived from old voyagers became stereotyped in the archives of the East India Company. All its north-eastern factories, from Balasor, on the Orissa coast, to Patná, in the heart of Behar, belonged to the 'Bengal Establishment;' and as our conquests crept higher up the rivers, the term came to be applied to the whole of Northern India. But during the last forty years, the tendency to a greater exactitude in the civil administration has gradually brought about a corresponding precision in the use of Indian geographical names. The Upper Provinces date their separate existence from 1832. Since that year, they stand forward under a name of their own as the North-Western Provinces, in contradistinction to the Lower Provinces of Bengal. Later annexations have added new territorial entities, and the northern Presidency of Bengal is now mapped out into six separate Governments—the Punjab, the North-Western Provinces with Oudh, the Central Provinces, Lower Bengal, Assam, and Ajmere.

Three of the Provinces of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal—namely, Bengal Proper, Behar, and Orissa—consist of great river valleys; the fourth, Chhotá or Chutiá Nágpur, is a mountainous region, which separates them from the Central Indian plateau. Orissa comprises the rich deltas of the Mahánadí and the neighbouring rivers, bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the south-east, and walled in on the north-west by Tributary Hill States. Proceeding eastward, the Province of Bengal Proper stretches along the coast from Orissa to British Burma, and inland from the seaboard to the Himálayas. Its southern portion is formed by the united deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra; its northern consists of the valleys of these great rivers and their tributaries. Behar lies on the north-west of Bengal Proper, and comprises the higher valley of the Ganges, from the spot where it issues south-eastwards from the territories of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. Between Behar and Orissa, but stretching farther westward, and deep into the hill country, lies the Province of Chhotá or Chutiá Nágpur.

Physical Aspects.—The territory, thus hemmed in, except at its north-western frontier, by the unchangeable landmarks of Nature—the mountains and the sea—consists chiefly of two broad river valleys. By the western one, the Ganges brings down the wealth and the accumulated waters of Northern India. The eastern valley forms the route by which the Brahmaputra, after draining the Tibetan plateau on

the north of the Himálayas, and skirting round their passes not far from the Yang-tse-Kiang and the great river of Cambodia, ends its tortuous journey of 1800 miles. The valleys of the Ganges and Brahmaputra in Bengal, although for the most part luxuriant alluvial plains, are diversified by spurs and peaks thrown out from the great mountain systems which wall them in on the north-east and south-west. This fertile region of hill and river produces tea, indigo, turmeric, the opium poppy, innumerable grains and pulses, pepper, ginger, betel-nut, the cinchona which yields quinine, many costly spices and drugs, oil-seeds of various kinds, cotton, the silk mulberry, inexhaustible crops of jute and other fibres; timber, from the feathery bamboo and coronetted palm to the iron-hearted *sál* tree—in short, every vegetable product which feeds and clothes a people, and enables it to trade with foreign nations. Nor is the country destitute of mineral wealth. The Districts near the sea consist entirely of alluvial formations; and, indeed, it is stated that no substance so coarse as gravel occurs throughout the Delta, or in the heart of the Provinces within 300 miles of the river mouths. But amid the hilly spurs and undulations on either side, coal, and iron, and copper ores, hold out a new future to Bengal, as capital increases under the influence of a stable Government, and our knowledge of the country becomes more exact. The coal-fields on the west have for a century been worked by English enterprise, and now yield between half a million and a million tons per annum. In the east, the coal-measures of Assam, which Province was separated from Bengal in 1874, await the general development of the country and improved facilities of transport. A railway has lately (1884) been opened to the most important of the Assam coal-fields. The climate varies from the snowy regions of the Himálayas to the tropical vapour-bath of the Delta and the burning winds of Behar. The ordinary range of the thermometer on the plains is from about 52° F. in the coldest month to 103° in the shade in summer. Anything below 60° is considered very cold; and by care in the hot weather, the temperature of well-built houses rarely exceeds 95°. The rainfall also varies greatly—from 500 to 600 inches per annum at CHARA PUNJI (Cherra Poonjee), Assam, to an average of about 37 inches in Behar, and about 65 inches in the Delta. Further meteorological details will be found on pp. 321–2.

The Rivers.—The most distinctive feature of Bengal is its rivers. These untaxed highways bring down, almost by the motive power of their own currents, the crops of Northern India to the seaboard — an annual harvest of wealth to the trading classes, for which the population of the Lower Provinces neither toil nor spin. Lower Bengal, indeed, exhibits the two typical stages in the life of a great river. In the northern Districts, the rivers run along the valleys, receive the drainage from the country on either side, absorb broad tributaries, and rush forward with

an ever-increasing volume. But near the centre of the Provinces they enter upon a new stage in their career. Their main channels bifurcate, and each new stream so created throws off its own set of distributaries to right and left. The country which they thus enclose and intersect forms the Delta of Bengal. Originally conquered by fluvial deposits from the sea, it now stretches out as a vast dead level, in which the rivers find their velocity checked. The diminished force of their currents ceases to carry along the silt which they have brought down from Northern India. The streams, accordingly, deposit their alluvial burden in their channels and upon their banks, so that by degrees their beds rise above the level of the surrounding country. In this way, the rivers in the Delta slowly build themselves up into high-level canals, which every autumn break through or overflow their margins, and leave their silt upon the adjacent flats. Thousands of square miles in Lower Bengal thus receive each year a top-dressing of virgin soil, brought free of expense from the Himálayas—a system of natural manuring which defies the utmost power of over-cropping to exhaust its fertility. As the rivers creep farther down the Delta, they become more and more sluggish, and their bifurcations and interlacings more complicated. The last scene of all is a vast amphibious wilderness of swamp and forest, amid whose solitudes the network of channels insensibly merges into the sea. Here the perennial struggle between earth and ocean goes on, and all the ancient secrets of land-making stand disclosed. The rivers, finally checked by the dead weight of the sea, deposit their remaining silt, which emerges as banks or blunted promontories, or, after years of battling with the tide, adds a few feet or, it may be, a few inches to the foreshore.

The Ganges, which enters on the western frontier, and runs diagonally across Bengal, gives to the country its peculiar character and aspect. About 220 miles from its mouth, it spreads out into numerous branches, forming a Delta. The Delta, where it borders on the sea, becomes a labyrinth of creeks and rivers, running through the dense forests of the Sundarbans, and exhibiting during the annual inundation the appearance of an immense sea. Higher up, the rice-fields, to the extent of thousands of square miles, are submerged. The scene presents to a European eye a panorama of singular novelty and interest—the crops covered with water; the ears of grain floating on the surface; the stupendous embankments, which restrain, without altogether preventing, the excesses of the inundations; and peasants in all quarters going about their daily work in canoes or on rafts. The navigable streams which fall into, or diverge from, the Ganges, intersect the country in every direction, and afford abundant facilities for internal communication. In many parts, boats can approach, by means of lakes, rivulets, and watercourses, to the door of almost every cottage. The

lower region of the Ganges is the richest and most productive portion of Bengal, and abounds in valuable produce. The other mighty river by which Bengal is intersected is the BRAHMAPUTRA, the source of whose remotest tributary is on the opposite or northern side of the same Himálayan Mountains from whose southern slopes the Ganges takes its rise. These two rivers proceed in diverging courses until they are more than 1200 miles asunder; and again approaching each other, intermix their waters before they reach the ocean. The principal minor rivers in Bengal (all of which see separately) are—the GOGRA (Ghagrá), SON (Soane), GANDAK, KUSI, TISTA; the HUGLI (Hoogly), formed by the junction of the Bhágirathí and Jalangí; farther to the west, the DAMODAR and RUPNARAYAN; and in the south-west, the MAHANADI, or 'Great River' of Orissa. In a level country like Bengal, where the soil is composed of yielding and loose materials, the courses of the rivers are continually shifting, from the wearing away of their banks, or from the water being turned off, by obstacles in its course, into a different channel. As the new channel gradually widens, the old bed of the river is left dry. The new channel into which the river flows is, of course, so much land lost, while the old bed constitutes an accession to the adjacent estates. Thus, one man's property is diminished, while that of another is enlarged or improved; and a distinct branch of Anglo-Indian jurisprudence has grown up, the particular province of which is the definition and regulation of the alluvial rights alike of private proprietors and of the State.

Mineral Products — Coal. — A very brief enumeration has been given of the principal minerals of Bengal. The coal mines of RANIGANJ, in Bardwán District, demand a fuller notice. The principal coal companies working within that tract in 1881 were—The Bengal, Equitable, New Bírbhúm, Apcar & Co., Barákhar, Alipur, Ránígani Coal Association, and Sib Kristo Dhar & Co., besides a number of smaller concerns. The miners are chiefly Santáls and Baurís, and the earth-cutters Dhángars and Kaorás. In the Ránígani coal-field there were in 1881 altogether 45 mines at work, of which 17 turned out more than 10,000 tons of coal each per annum. In the larger and better mines, coal is raised by steam power from pits and galleries; and in the smaller mines or workings, by hand labour from open quarries. In the Ránígani coal-field alone, 61 steam engines, with an aggregate of 867 horse-power, were at work. Only one seam or set of seams of less thickness than 8½ feet was worked, and the average thickness of the seams at the Ránígani mines is about 15 or 16 feet. The pits are usually shallow; very few being more than 150 feet deep. The Bengal Coal Company, with its mines at Ránígani and to the westward, is able to raise 250,000 tons of coal annually. Dr. Oldham, the late superintendent of the Geological Survey, in his Report on the

Coal Resources of India (1867), gives an approximate estimate of about fourteen thousand million tons of available coal in the Ráníganj field, after allowing for waste, loss, small coal, etc. The coal, though very inferior to English, is adequate for ordinary railway purposes, and even for steam vessels, with the exception of ocean-going steamers; and *a fortiori* for stationary engines.

The coal of the Ráníganj coal-field, like most Indian coals, is a non-coking bituminous coal, composed of distinct laminæ of a bright coal and of a dull earthy rock, with a large proportion of volatile matter and ash, the amount of the latter averaging about 15 per cent., as against 2¾ per cent. in English coal, and ranging from 8 to 25 per cent. A sample of a very pure coal from the Sársol mine gave the following results:—Volatile, 40 per cent.; fixed carbon, 57·5 per cent.; ash, 2·5 per cent. The principal drawbacks to the extended employment of Ráníganj coal in India, and the reasons why the expensive English coal is still generally employed, especially by sea-going steamers on long voyages, are the following:—(1) The non-coking property of Ráníganj coal; (2) the small proportion of fixed carbon, upon which the value of coal for heating purposes depends; (3) the large proportion of ash, a larger quantity of Ráníganj coal being therefore required to perform the same duty as a smaller quantity of good English coal; (4) its liability to spontaneous ignition, which is mainly due to the large quantity of iron pyrites in the coal. The two most heavily worked lines of railway in India, viz. the East Indian and the Great Indian Peninsula, use respectively Indian and English coal, and their relative consumption is 150 tons per mile on the former as compared with 75 tons on the latter.

There are also coal mines in Bánkurá District, but they are unimportant.

Salt manufacture was formerly a Government monopoly, principally carried on along the sea-coast of Orissa, and in Midnapur District. A description of the manufacture of salt by means of evaporation by fire has been given in the article on BALASOR. The process of manufacture by means of solar evaporation will be described in the Account of PURI DISTRICT. The State abandoned its monopoly of salt manufacture many years ago, and it is now carried on by private parties, subject to a Government duty of 5s. per cwt. At the present day, almost the whole of the salt consumed in Bengal is imported by Liverpool ships from the Cheshire mines. Small quantities are still manufactured in Orissa and the Twenty-four Parganás under excise rules. In 1881, the Bengal salt duty yielded a net revenue of £2,452,417.

Iron.—Several attempts have been made to work the iron ores of Bengal, but hitherto without any decisive success from the mercantile point of view. A company was started a few years ago, and erected

two blast furnaces, but failed through want of capital. The Government has recently purchased the works, and is keeping them in its own hands provisionally, until arrangements can be made for transferring them to a private company. The output when the furnaces are in full working order is estimated at 80 tons of pig-iron per diem. From 300 to 350 tons of cast-iron are produced monthly, worth about £2500. Six hundred workmen are employed casting railway sleepers. Iron-smelting in a very rough manner has been carried on from time immemorial by many aboriginal tribes, especially in the western Districts of Bengal. These rude people work individually on a small scale, but the aggregate produce of their miniature furnaces is considerable. They formerly supplied the whole iron required for weapons and other purposes in Bengal.

History.—The history of so large a Province as Bengal forms an integral part of the general history of India. The northern part, Behar, ranked as a powerful kingdom in Sanskrit times, and its chief town, Patná, is identified as the *Palibothra* of the Greeks. The Delta or southern part of Bengal lay beyond the ancient Sanskrit polity, and was governed by a number of local kings belonging to a pre-Aryan stock. The Chinese travellers, Fa Hian in the 5th century, and Hwen Thsang in the 7th century, found the Buddhist religion prevailing throughout Bengal, but already in a fierce struggle with Hinduism—a struggle which ended about the 9th or 10th century in the general establishment of the latter faith. Until the end of the 12th century, Hindu princes ruled over the lower valley of the Ganges, in petty principalities. In 1199, Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí was appointed to lead the first Musalmán invasion into Bengal. The Muhammadan conquest of Behar dates from 1200, and the new power speedily spread southwards into the Delta. From about this date until 1336, Bengal was ruled by governors appointed by the Muhammadan Emperors in the north. From 1336 to 1539, its Musalmán governors asserted a precarious independence, and arrogated the position of sovereigns on their own account. From 1539 to 1576, Bengal passed under the rule of the Pathán or Afghán dynasty, which commonly bears the name of Sher Sháh. On the overthrow of this house by the powerful arms of Akbar, Bengal was incorporated into the Mughal Empire, and administered by governors appointed by the Delhi Emperor, until the treaties of 1765, which placed Bengal, Behar, and Orissa under the administration of the East India Company. Down to 1854, Bengal remained under the Governor-General of India as Governor, his place being supplied, during his absence in other parts of India, by a Deputy-Governor appointed from among the members of his council. By the statute 16 and 17 Vict. cap. 95, the Governorship of Bengal was separated from the Governor-Generalship of India, and Bengal was erected into a Lieutenant-

Governorship. The first Lieutenant-Governor was appointed in 1854; and the constitution of the Government of Bengal still continues on this basis, except that the Lieutenant-Governor is now appointed subject to the approval of the Queen. The foregoing summary must suffice for the general history of Bengal; but many episodes will be narrated under the towns or places where they occurred. It is impossible here to give any historical details beyond a bare list of the rulers.

First Period.

EARLY MUHAMMADAN GOVERNORS OF BENGAL.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Sovereigns of England.
1199	595	Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí	Muiz-ud-dín (*alias* Shaháb-ud-dín) Ghorí	John
1205	602	Muhammad Sherán Khiljí	Kutab-ud-dín Aibak	Do.
1208	605	Ali Mardán Khiljí	Do.	Do.
1211	608	Sultán Ghiyás-ud-dín	Altamsh	Henry III.
1226	624	Nasír-ud-dín, son of Emp. Altamsh	Do.	Do.
1229	627	Alá-ud-dín Jáni	Do.	Do.
1229	627	Sáif-ud-dín Aibak	Do.	Do.
1233	631	Tughán Khán	Sultáná Raziyá	Do.
1244	642	Taimúr Khán	Alá-ud-dín Mas'úd	Do.
1244	642	Málik Yuzbeg Tughrál Khán	Do.	Do.
1258	656	Jalál-ud-dín Más'úd	Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd	Do.
1258	657	Izz-ud-dín Balban (afterwards Emperor)	Do.	Do.
1259	657	Arslán Khán Khwarizmi	Do.	Do.
1260	659	Arslán Tátar Khán	Do.	Do.
1277?	676?	Tughrál (Sultán Majhiss-ud-dín)	Ghiyás-ud-dín Balban	Edward I.
1282	681	Nasír-ud-dínBughráKhán (son of Balban)	Do.	Do.
1291	691	Rukn-ud-dín Kai Káús	Muiz-ud-dín Kaikábád; Firoz Sháh Khiljí; Alá-ud-dín Khiljí	Do.
1302	702	Shams-ud-dín Firoz Sháh	Alá-ud-dín Khiljí	Edward II.
1318	?	Shaháb-ud-dín Bughrá Sháh	Mubárik Sháh	Do.
?	?	Ghiyás-ud-dín Bahádur Sháh	Tughlak Sháh	
?	?	Nasír-ud-dín	Muhammad Tughlak	
?	?	Kadr Khán	Do.	

Second Period.

INDEPENDENT MUHAMMADAN KINGS OF BENGAL.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Sovereigns of England.
1336	737	Fakr-ud-dín Mubárik Sháh	Muhammad Tughlak	Edward III.
1341	742	Alá-ud-dín Ali Sháh (in Gaur)	Do.	Do.
1346	?	Ilyás Sháh (in Gaur)	Do.	Do.
1346	?	Gházi Sháh (in the East)	Do.	Do.
1352	?	Ilyás Sháh (over all)	Firoz Sháh (Tughlak)	Do.
1358	759	Sikandar Sháh	Do.	Do.
1370	772	Ghiyás-ud-dín Sháh (in the East)	Do.	Richard II.
1390	792	Ghiyás-ud-dín (over all)	Muhammad Sháh	Do.
1397	799	Hamzah, Sultán Asalátán	Masirát Sháh	Do.
?	?	Shaháb-ud-dín Bayazid Sháh	Mahmúd Sháh	Henry IV.
1404	807	Rájá Ganesh	Do.	Do.
1414	817	Jalál-ud-dín Muhammad Sháh	Khizir Khán	Henry V.
1433	836	Ahmad Sháh	Mubárik Sháh	Henry VI.
1442	845	Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd Sháh	Alam Sháh	Do.
1460	864	Barbak Sháh	Bahlol Lodi	Edward IV.
1474	879	Yusaf Sháh	Do.	Do.
1481	886	Fateh Sháh	Do.	Richard III.
1487	892	Sultán Sháhzáda	Do.	Henry VII.
1487	?	Sáif-ud-dín Firoz Sháh	Do.	Do.
1491	896	Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd	Sikandar Lodi	Do.
1492	897	Muzaffar Sháh	Do.	Do.
1494	899	Sayyid Husain Sháh	Do.	Do.
1521	927	Nasirat Sháh	Ibráhím Lodi and Bábar	Henry VIII.
1532	939	Firoz Sháh III.	Humáyún	Do.
1533	940	Mahmúd Sháh (the last substantial King of Bengal)	Do.	Do.

Third Period.

BENGAL UNDER THE AFGHAN OR PATHAN DYNASTY. (SHER SHAH.)

1539	946	Khizir Khán	Sher Sháh	Henry VIII.
1545	952	Muhammad Súr	Salím Sháh	Edward VI.
1555	962	Bahádur Sháh	Muhammad Adíl	Mary
1560	968	Jalál-ud-dín	Do.	Elizabeth
1564	971	Sulaimán Keràní	Do.	Do.
1573	981	Dáúd Khán	Akbar	Do.

Fourth Period.

GOVERNORS OF BENGAL UNDER THE MUGHAL DYNASTY.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Sovereigns of England.
1576	984	Khán Jahán	Akbar	Elizabeth
1579	987	Muzaffar Khán	Do.	Do.
1580	988	Rájá Todar Mall	Do.	Do.
1582	990	Khán Azím	Do.	Do.
1584	992	Sháhbáz Khán	Do.	Do.
1589	997	Rájá Mán Singh	Do.	Do.
1606	1015	Kutab-ud-dín Kokaltásh	Jahángír	James I.
1607	1016	Jahángír Kuli	Do.	Do.
1608	1017	Shaikh Islám Khán	Do.	Do.
1613	1022	Kásim Khán	Do.	Do.
1618	1028	Ibráhím Khán	Do.	Do.
1622	1032	Sháh Jahán	Do.	Do.
1625	1033	Khánazád Khán	Do.	Charles I.
1626	1035	Mukarram Khán	Do.	Do.
1627	1036	Fidái Khán	Do.	Do.
1628	1037	Kásim Khán Jabúni	Sháh Jahán	Do.
1632	1042	Azím Khán	Do.	Do.
1637	1047	Islám Khán Mashadi	Do.	Do.
1639	1049	Sultán Shujá	Do.	Do.
1660	1070	Mír Jumlá	Aurangzeb	Charles II.
1664	1074	Shaistá Khán	Do.	Do.
1677	1087	Fidái Khán	Do.	Do.
1678	1088	Sultán Muhammad Azím	Do.	Do.
1680	1090	Shaistá Khán	Do.	Do.
1689	1099	Ibráhím Khán II.	Do.	William III.
1697	1108	Azím Ushán	Do.	Anne
1704	1116	Murshíd Kulí Khán	Do.	George II.
1725	1139	Shujá ud-dín Khán	Muhammad Sháh	Do.
1739	1151	Sarfaráz Khán	Do.	Do.
1740	1153	Ali Vardí Khán	Do.	Do.
1756	1170	Siráj-ud-daulá	Alamgír	Do.
1757	1171	Mír Jafar	Do.	Do.
1760	1174	Kásim Ali Khán	Sháh Alam	George III.
1763	1177	Mír Jafar	Do.	Do.
1765	1179	Najím-ud-daulá	Do.	Do.

The lists for the first three periods have been compiled (1879) for this article chiefly by Col. Yule, C.B., from materials supplied by the late Professor Blochmann, Mr. E. Thomas' *Chronicle of the Pathán Kings of Delhi*, and Ravenshaw's *Gaur*. They are based upon native writers, but have been carefully corrected from coins and inscriptions. The list for the fourth period is taken from Major Stewart's *History of Bengal*.

Fifth Period.

GOVERNORS OF BENGAL AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, 1765–1854.

1765, Lord Clive; 1767, Harry Verelst; 1769, John Cartier; 1772, Warren Hastings; 1785, Sir John Macpherson; 1786 Marquis Cornwallis; 1793, Sir John

Shore (Lord Teignmouth); 1798, Sir Alured Clarke (*pro tem.*); 1798, Marquis Wellesley; 1805, Marquis Cornwallis; 1806, Earl of Minto; 1813, Marquis of Hastings; 1823, John Adam (*pro tem.*); 1823, Earl Amherst; 1828, Lord William Cavendish Bentinck; 1835, Sir Charles Metcalf; 1836, Earl Auckland; 1842, Earl of Ellenborough; 1844, Viscount Hardinge; 1848, Marquis of Dalhousie.

SIXTH PERIOD.

BENGAL UNDER LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS, 1854–1883.

Sir Frederick Halliday, 1854; Sir John Peter Grant, 1859; Sir Cecil Beadon, 1862; Sir William Grey, 1867; Sir George Campbell, 1871; Sir Richard Temple, 1874; The Honourable Sir Ashley Eden, 1877; Mr. Rivers Thompson, 1882.

English Connection with Bengal.—The East India Company formed its earliest settlements in Bengal in the first half of the 17th century. These settlements were of a purely commercial character. In 1620, one of the Company's factors dates a letter from PATNA; in 1624–36, the Company established itself, by the favour of the Emperor, on the ruins of the ancient Portuguese settlement of PIPPLI, in the north of Orissa; in 1640–42, the patriotism of an English surgeon, Mr. Gabriel Boughton, obtained for us establishments at BALASOR (also in Orissa), and at HUGLI, 25 miles above Calcutta. The vexations and extortions to which the Company's early agents were subjected nearly induced them more than once to abandon the trade, and in 1677–78 they threatened to withdraw from Bengal altogether. In 1686, their Bengal factors, driven to extremity by the oppression of the Mughal governors, fled from Húglí down the Ganges to the three villages which have grown up into CALCUTTA, the metropolis of India. During the next fifty years, the English had a long and hazardous struggle, alike with the Mughal governors of the Province, and with the Maráthá armies which invaded it. In 1756, this struggle culminated in the great outrage known as the Black Hole of Calcutta, followed by the re-capture of Calcutta and Clive's battle of Plassey, which avenged it. That battle, and the subsequent years of confused fighting, established our military supremacy in Bengal, and procured the treaties of 1765, by which the Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa passed under our administration. To Warren Hastings (1772–85) belongs the glory of consolidating our power, and converting a military occupation into a stable civil government. To another member of the civil service, John Shore (1786–98), afterwards Lord Teignmouth, is due the formation of a regular system of Anglo-Indian legislation. Acting under Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, he ascertained and defined the rights of the landholders in the soil. These landholders under the native system had, for the most part, started as collectors of the revenue, and gradually acquired certain prescriptive rights as quasi-

proprietors of the estates entrusted to them by the Government. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis declared their rights perpetual, and made over the land of Bengal to the previous quasi-proprietors or *zamíndárs*, on condition of the payment of a fixed land tax. This great piece of legislation is known as the Permanent Settlement of the Land Revenue.

But the Cornwallis Code, while defining the position of the proprietors, failed to give adequate recognition to the rights of the under-tenants and the cultivators. Its Regulations formally reserved the latter class of rights, but did not legally define them, or enable the husbandmen to enforce them in the courts. After half a century of rural disquiet, an attempt was made to formulate the rights of the cultivators by Act x. of 1859, and by several subsequent enactments based upon it. This series of measures, now known as the Land Law of Bengal, endeavoured to effect for the under-holders and cultivators what the Cornwallis Code in 1793 had effected for the superior landholders. The legislation of 1793, conjointly with that of 1859 and subsequent enactments, sought to define the status of each class of person interested in the soil, from the Government as suzerain, through the *zamíndárs* or superior landholders, the intermediate tenure-holders, and the under-tenants, down to the actual cultivator. The practical working of the later measures disclosed, however, that the protection which they gave to the rights of the cultivators was less effective and less complete than the protection given by the Cornwallis Code to the rights of the landholders. After a patient trial, extending over twenty years of the Acts inaugurated by the Land Law of 1859, the Bengal Government issued a Commission to inquire into the condition of the agricultural classes, and to submit proposals for placing the relations of landlords and tenants on a better footing. The Report of the Commission forms an invaluable storehouse of information regarding the rural population of Bengal. A Tenancy Bill was based on its recommendations at the instance of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and introduced into the Supreme Legislative Council in 1883. This important measure is still under discussion by the Legislative Council (1884).

The Land Act of 1859 dates from the first year after the transfer of India from the Company to the Crown; for meanwhile the Mutiny had burst out in 1857. The events of that revolt chiefly took place in Northern India, and will be summarised under INDIA and the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES; the uprising, although fierce, and for a time perilous to our supremacy, was quickly put down. In Bengal it began at BERHAMPUR and BARRACKPUR, was communicated to DACCA in Eastern Bengal, and for a time raged in Behar, producing the memorable defence of the billiard-room at

ARRAH by a handful of civilians and Sikhs—one of the most splendid pieces of gallantry in the history of the British arms. Since 1858, when the country passed to the Crown, the history of Bengal has been one of steady and peaceful progress. Two great lines of railway, the East Indian and the Eastern Bengal, have been completed, as also a network of State lines, and the Dárjíling-Himálayan Railway, which belongs to a private company. Trade has enormously expanded; new centres of commerce have sprung up in spots which not long ago were silent jungles. Railways, roads, and communications will, however, form the subject of a separate section, *post*, pp. 312–315. Fresh staples of trade, such as tea and jute, have rapidly attained importance; and the coal-fields and iron ores are beginning to open up prospects of a novel and splendid era in the internal development of the country.

Population—Administrative Divisions.—Within the Provinces under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal dwell a great congeries of peoples, of widely diverse origin, speaking different languages, and representing far separated eras of civilisation. The area of the British territories constituting the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal is 150,588 square miles, excluding the area of large rivers and of the Sundarbans—a large tract of unsurveyed and half-submerged forest, forming the sea-face of the delta of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, with an estimated area of 5976 square miles. But in addition to Districts under direct British rule are other territories governed by chiefs, in political dependence upon the Government of Bengal. These are the Principalities of Kuch Behar and Hill Tipperah, situated respectively on the north-eastern and eastern boundaries of Bengal, and two groups of petty chiefships on the south and south-west of the Province, known as the Tributary States of Orissa and of Chutiá Nágpur. These territories comprise an area of 36,634 square miles, making a total area for the whole of Bengal of 187,222 square miles, excluding the Sundarbans, or of 193,198 square miles including that region.

The Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal is further divided into four great Provinces of unequal size, but with strongly defined characteristics. Three of them are known under the historic names of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa; while the fourth is composed of the still undeveloped and comparatively little explored territory of Chhota or Chutiá Nágpur. Of these Provinces, Bengal Proper is by far the largest both in actual area and in population. It extends over 70,430 square miles, exclusive of the Sundarbans, and occupies more than one-third of the whole area. Behar comes next, with an area of 44,139 square miles, or nearly one-fourth of the whole area; Chutiá Nágpur has 26,966, and Orissa 9053 square miles; while the Feudatory States aggregate 36,634 square miles.

The four British Provinces of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal are portioned off into nine large tracts of varying area, officially called Divisions, each of which is superintended by a Commissioner. Of these nine Divisions, five—namely, the Presidency, Bardwán, Rájsháhi, Dacca, and Chittagong—are within the limits of Bengal proper; two—namely, Patná and Bhágalpur—make up the Province of Behar; while Orissa and Chutiá Nágpur each form a single Commissionership or Division. The Chutiá Nágpur Division, although the largest in point of size (26,966 square miles), includes a much larger proportion of uncultivated land, and a smaller population than any other, with the exception of Chittagong, which has less than half its area (12,118 square miles), and of Orissa, which is little more than one-third its size (9053 square miles). The average area of a Commissioner's Division is 16,732 square miles.

These nine Divisions are again divided into 45 Districts (exclusive of the town and suburbs of Calcutta, and the two Government estates of Angúl and Bánki), which exhibit a still greater variation in area than the Divisions. For whereas the largest District, Lohárdagá, has an area of 12,045 square miles, the smallest, Howrah, is only 476 square miles in extent, and derives its importance from the existence within its limits of the metropolitan suburb of Howrah. The average size of a District in Bengal is 3323 square miles. Below the Districts are Sub-divisions, of which nearly every District has two or more, each administered by a resident Assistant or Deputy-Magistrate subordinate to the Magistrate of the District. The number of these Sub-divisions in Bengal is 135, with an average area of 1107 square miles, varying from 7804 square miles in the case of Lohárdagá, to 33 square miles in the case of Chuádángá in Nadiyá. The last and smallest unit of administration recognised in the Census is the *thánά* or police circle, which has come to be the acknowledged unit of territorial partition, and is every day being used more and more in all administrative matters. The number of *thánás* in Bengal is 622, with an average area of 236 square miles. On an average, each District is broken up into 13 of these police circles, the actual number ranging from 39 in the Twenty-four Parganás to 4 in Dárjíling and Jalpáigurí.

For the purposes of revenue administration, the country was divided by the Mughal Government into *parganás*, or fiscal divisions, each comprising certain villages with their lands. This arrangement formed the basis of our own revenue system; but from its want of compactness, as well as for other reasons, it has been found inconvenient, and in Bengal has fallen into such decay that in some Districts the *parganá* boundaries can hardly be ascertained. Practically, the *parganá* divisions have died out, except for purposes of land revenue payments, in favour

of the simpler and more compact *thánás* adopted for purposes of police. The *thánú* or police circle is now the unit of local administration.

A better idea of the respective size of the different territorial divisions of Bengal than can be gained by a mere statement of figures, may be obtained by contrasting them with other and more familiar areas. Thus, the area of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, including the Feudatory States and the tiger-haunted swamps of the Sundarbans, is very little less than that of Spain, and a good deal more than half as large again as England and Wales. It exceeds the aggregate area of five European States, namely, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and Greece. One of its four provinces, Behar, is nearly as extensive as the new kingdom of Roumania, or the ancient kingdom of Poland. Chutiá Nágpur is a little larger than Ceylon, and a little smaller than Bavaria. Orissa (British) is of almost equal extent with Saxony; and the area of the Feudatory States is rather more than that of Portugal. Taking the nine Divisions or Commissionerships, their average area is somewhat larger than that of Switzerland; while of the largest ones, Patná and Bhágalpur, the former is almost exactly co-extensive with Belgium and the Netherlands, while the latter is considerably larger than Greece. Dacca Division is the size of Denmark, and the combined area of Rájsháhí and Bardwán Divisions equals that of Scotland. The average Bengal District, with an area of 3323 square miles, is considerably larger than any county in England or Ireland, except Yorkshire, and is most nearly approached by Argyleshire in Scotland. The large Districts exceed in extent any single county in the United Kingdom; and the largest of them, Lohárdagá, is greater than the whole of Wales together with the county of York. Hazáribágh is larger than the Irish Province of Connaught. The Santál Parganás and the Chittagong Hill Tracts are each about as extensive as Alsace-Lorraine. The smallest Bengal District, the suburban Howrah, is nearly twice the size of Middlesex, and not much smaller than the 'kingdom' of Fife. This, however, is an exceptionally small District, and scarcely more extensive than the average Bengal Sub-division. The next smallest District to it, Húglí, is nearly four times its size, and almost as large as Gloucestershire. Each Sub-division of a Bengal District is, on the average, exactly the size of an average English county; and the average *thánú* or police circle is rather more than twice the size of Malta.

The average population of each of the 45 Districts of Bengal is a little less than a million and a half, the figures ranging from 3,051,966 in Maimansingh, to 101,597 in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Nine Districts have a population of more than two million souls, while only seven fall below three-quarters of a million. Comparing the population with that of other countries, it will be seen that the population ruled

over by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal (69,536,861) exceeds the population of any European country except Russia. It does not fall far short of the total population of France and the United Kingdom put together; it exceeds by 50 per cent. the population of the German Empire, and by 38 per cent. that of the United States of America. The population of one of its four Provinces, Bengal Proper, falls short by only half a million of that of the whole of the United Kingdom. Another of its four Provinces, Behar, supports a population larger than that of Spain and Portugal, and not much less than that of England and Wales. The Uriyás of Orissa are almost exactly as numerous as the inhabitants of Scotland; and the mixed races dwelling in the Districts of the Chutiá Nágpur Division are very nearly as numerous as the whole population of Canada and the other British possessions in North America. The Commissioner of Patná rules the fortunes of nearly thrice as many persons as the King of the Belgians or the Khedive of Egypt. Chittagong Division, which is the smallest in Bengal in point of numbers, has a population equal to twice that of Norway; and the total of the Feudatory States is just that of the continent of Australia. The other Divisions contain populations which take an intermediate place between European Turkey and Belgium. The average Bengal District has a population equal to that of the Grand Duchy of Baden, the Irish Province of Leinster, the English county of Surrey, or the State of Virginia. Among the larger Districts, Maimansingh has its counterpart in the great States of Illinois and Ohio, or the county of Lancashire, with its commercial cities and swarming manufacturing population. While there are 35 Districts in Bengal with upwards of a million of inhabitants, only 4 counties in England exceed that total. Indeed, the counterpart in Bengal of the British county is not the District, but the Sub-division; and if the metropolitan county of Middlesex be omitted, a sub-divisional officer in Bengal is entrusted with the supervision of a larger number of persons than inhabit an English county.

The table on the two following pages exhibits the area, population, etc. of each Province, Division, and District in Bengal, as ascertained by the Census of 1881:—

General Survey of the Population.—The Government in Bengal is complicated by the fact that, while this vast population is ruled by a single head, it consists of elements so dissimilar as to render it impracticable to place them under one system of administration. They exhibit every stage of human progress, and every type of human enlightenment and superstition — from the sceptical educated classes, represented by the Hindu gentleman who distinguishes himself at Oxford or a London Inn of Court, to the hill chieftain who a few years ago sacrificed

[*Sentence continued on p.* 287.

Division.	Districts.	Area in sq. miles.	Number of Villages or Towns.	Number of Occupied Houses.	Population. Total.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	'Others.'	Average Density per sq. mile.	Average Villages per sq. mile.	Average Inmates per house.	Land Revenue (approximate).
Bardwán.	Bardwán,	2,697	3,667	289,047	1,391,823	1,120,676	263,816	910	6,421	516·0	1·36	4·82	£338,682
	Bánkurá,	2,621	5,460	168,321	1,041,752	910,845	46,274	56	84,577	397·5	2·08	6·19	52,306
	Bírbhúm,	1,756	3,273	181,068	794,428	617,310	162,621	48	14,449	452·4	1·85	4·39	88,437
	Midnapur,	5,082	13,876	417,062	2,517,802	2,235,535	164,003	740	117,524	495·4	2·73	6·04	270,643
	Húglí,	1,223	2,291	238,619	1,012,768	822,972	188,798	655	343	828·1	1·87	4·24	} 149,277
	Howrah,	476	1,487	113,644	635,381	500,870	132,118	2,051	342	1,334·8	3·12	5·59	}
	Total,	13,855	30,054	1,407,761	7,393,954	6,208,208	957,630	4,460	656	533·7	2·17	5·25	£899,345
Presidency.	24 Parganás,	2,097	5,078	269,694	1,618,420	1,003,110	604,725	28	659	771·8	2·42	6·00	} £191,743
	Suburbs of Calcutta,	23	1	37,805	251,439	149,930	96,583	4,048	878	10,932·1	.04	6·65	}
	Calcutta,	8	1	34,534	433,219	278,762	124,430	26,430	3,597	54,152·3	·12	12·54	2,504
	Nadiyá,	3,404	3,700	360,686	2,017,847	864,773	146,603	6,440	31	592·8	1·09	5·59	120,139
	Jessore,	2,276	3,996	226,585	1,577,249	631,439	945,297	474	39	693·0	1·76	6·96	} 127,725
	Khúlná,	2,077	2,890	156,223	1,079,948	523,657	555,544	747	...	520·0	1·39	6·91	}
	Murshidábád,	2,144	3,585	257,967	1,226,790	634,796	589,957	470	1,567	572·0	1·67	4·76	141,734
	Total,	12,029	19,251	1,343,494	8,204,912	4,086,467	4,063,137	48,537	6,771	682·1	1·60	6·11	£583,845
Rájsháhí.	Dinájpur,	4,118	6,921	268,647	1,514,346	716,630	795,824	457	1,435	367·7	1·68	5·64	£178,756
	Rájsháhí,	2,361	5,159	224,678	1,338,638	288,749	1,049,700	121	68	566·9	2·19	5·96	108,203
	Rangpur,	3,486	6,737	337,096	2,097,964	816,532	1,279,605	86	1,741	601·8	1·93	6·22	127,190
	Bogra,	1,498	4,202	99,473	734,358	140,860	593,411	27	60	490·2	2·81	7·38	53,369
	Pabná	1,847	3,921	200,447	1,311,728	361,479	949,908	114	227	710·2	2·12	6·54	48,017
	Dárjiling,	1,234	943	29,028	155,179	126,717	8,204	842	19,416	125·7	·76	5·35	10,442
	Jalpáiguri,	2,884	971	94,795	581,562	367,891	208,513	159	4,999	201·6	·34	6·13	45,421
	Total,	17,428	28,854	1,254,164	7,733,775	2,818,858	4,885,165	1,806	27,946	443·7	1·66	6·17	£571,404
Dacca.	Dacca,	2,797	6,422	308,695	2,116,350	856,680	1,250,687	8,799	184	756·6	2·30	6·86	£60,957
	Farídpur,	2,267	4,655	224,134	1,631,734	653,992	974,983	2,741	18	719·7	2·05	7·28	64,457
	Bákarganj,	3,619	4,336	222,912	1,900,889	624,597	1,267,694	3,717	4,881	520·9	1·19	8·53	176,119
	Maimansingh,	6,287	12,609	403,162	3,051,966	987,355	2,038,505	151	25,955	485·4	2·01	7·57	112,364
	Total,	15,000	28,022	1,158,903	8,700,939	3,122,624	5,531,869	15,403	31,038	580·1	1·87	7·51	£413,897
Chittagong.	Chittagong,	2,567	1,376	211,387	1,132,341	275,177	801,986	1,055	54,123	441·1	·54	5·36	£96,684
	Noákhálí,	1,641	2,471	86,958	820,772	211,476	608,592	588	116	500·1	1·51	9·44	73,601
	Tipperah,	2,491	6,451	179,374	1,519,338	511,025	1,007,740	199	374	610·0	2·59	8·47	120,369
	Chittagong Hill Tracts,	5,419	815	15,003	101,597	20,285	7,292	49	73,971	18·7	·15	6·77	
	Total,	12,118	11,113	492,722	3,574,048	1,017,963	2,425,610	1,891	128,584	295·0	·92	7·25	£290,654
	Total for Bengal proper,	70,430	117,294	5,657,044	35,607,628	17,254,120	17,863,411	72,102	417,995	505·5	1·67	6·29	£2,759,148

Census of Bengal, 1881—*continued.*

Division.	Districts.	Area in sq. miles.	Number of Villages or Towns.	Number of Occupied Houses.	Population. Total.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	'Others.'	Average Density per sq. mile.	Average Villages per sq. mile.	Average Inmates per House.	Land Revenue (approximate).
Patná.	Patná,	2,079	5,635	279,455	1,756,856	1,541,061	213,141	2,588	66	845·0	2·71	6·29	£180,328
	Gayá,	4 712	9,657	346,794	2,124,682	1,891,484	233,0,8	96	4	450·9	2·05	6·13	185,672
	Sháhábád,	4,365	5,641	274,934	1,964,909	1,817,881	146,732	276	20	450·1	1·29	7·15	203,622
	Muzaffarpur,	3 003	5,154	368,254	2 582,060	2,265.380	316,308	372	...	859·8	1·72	7·01	125,700
	Darbhangah,	3,335	6,359	362,576	2,633,447	2,323.979	3 8,985	3·5	158	789·6	1·90	7·26	114,028
	Sáran,	2,622	4,379	326,699	2,280,.82	2,010,958	269,142	282	...	869·7	1·67	6·98	154,930
	Champáran,	3 531	7,766	282,821	1,721,608	1,476,985	242,687	1,936	...	487·5	2·20	6·09	66,678
	Total,	23,647	44,591	2,241,533	15,063,944	13,327,728	1,730,093	5,875	248	637·0	1·89	6·72	£1,030,958
Bhágalpur.	Monghyr,	3,921	6,448	280,234	1,969,774	1,774,013	187,517	1,091	7,153	502 3	1·64	7·03	£107,839
	Bhágalpur,	4,268	6,177	321,469	1,966,158	1,764,304	185,533	578	15,743	460·6	1·45	6·12	82,238
	Purniah,	4,956	5,687	304,712	1,848,687	1,076,539	771,130	327	691	373·0	1·15	6·07	131,842
	Maldah,	1,891	3,250	126,202	710,448	379,153	329,525	26	1,744	375·7	1·72	5·63	46,208
	Santál Parganás,	5,456	11,254	246 746	1,568,093	847.590	108,899	3,057	608,547	287·4	2·06	6·36	28,905
	Total,	20,492	32,816	1,279,363	8,063,160	5,841,599	1,582,604	5,079	633,878	393·4	1·60	6·30	£397,032
	Total for Behar,	41,139	77,407	3,520,896	23,127,104	19,169,327	3,312,697	10,954	634 126	523·9	1·75	6.57	£1,427,990
Orissa.	Cuttack,	3,517	12,841	316,436	1,738,165	1,687,608	47,259	2,331	967	494·2	3·65	5·49	£97,140
	Puri,	2.473	5,166	127,369	888,487	873,664	14,003	819	1	359·2	2·09	6·98	53,460
	Balasor,	2,066	6,331	160,799	945,280	915,792	23 804	815	4.869	457·5	3·05	5·88	45,828
	Angúl,	881	379	17,719	101,903	100,366	275	6	1,256	115·6	·43	5·75	...
	Bánki,	116	177	9,181	56,900	56,619	270	11	...	490 5	1·53	6·20	...
	Total for Orissa,	9,053	24,894	631,504	3,730,735	3,634,049	85,611	3,982	7,093	412·1	2·75	5·91	£196,428
Chutiá Nágpur.	Hazáribágh,	7,021	7,833	185,280	1,104,742	924,811	106,097	552	73.282	1 7·3	1·12	5·96	£18,402
	Lohárdagá,	12,045	12,130	289,886	1,609,244	868,842	77,403	36,281	626,718	133·6	1·01	5·55	18,799
	Singhbhúm,	3,753	3,001	85,843	453,775	447,810	2,329	2,988	648	120 9	·80	5·29	6,791
	Manbhúm,	4,147	6,147	178,494	1,058,248	946,247	45.453	552	65.976	255·1	1·48	5·93	14,225
	Total for Chutiá Nágpur,	26,966	29,111	739.503	4,225,989	3,187,710	231,282	40,373	766,624	156·7	1·08	5·71	£58,217
	Grand total for the Province,	150,588	248,706	10,548,947	66,691,456	43,245,206	21,493,001	127,411	1,825 838	442·8	1·65	6·32	£4,441,784
Feudatory States.	Kuch Behar,	1,307	1,214	115,720	602.624	427,478	174.539	48	559	461 0	·93	5·21	...
	Hill Tipperah,	4,086	...	...	95.637	9.779	26,951	113	58,794	23·4	...	...	...
	Trib. States, Orissa,	15,187	11,212	259,653	1,469.142	1,099,217	5.729	458	363,738	96·7	·74	5·66	£3,325
	Do. Chutiá Nágpur,	10,054	3,633	112,454	678,002	671,126	4.504	105	2,267	42·2	·23	6·03	468
	Total for Feudatory States,	36,634	16,059	487,827	2,845,405	2,207,600	211,723	724	425,358	77·67	·44	5·83	£3,793
	Grand total for Province, including Feudatory States,*	187,222	264,765	11,036,774	69,536,861	45,452,806	21,704,724	128,135	2,251,196	371·4	1·41	6·30	£4,445,577

* Exclusive of [illegible]

Sentence continued from p. 284.]
an idiot on the top of a mountain to obtain a favourable decision in a Privy Council Appeal. A large section of the people belongs to the august Aryan race, from which we ourselves descend. Its classical language, Sanskrit, is as near to our own as that of the Welsh or Scottish Highlanders. We address the Deity and his earthly representatives, our father and mother, by words derived from roots common to the Christian and Hindu. Nor does the religious instinct assume a wider variety of manifestations, or exhibit a more striking series of metamorphoses, among the European than among the Indian branches of the race. Theodore Parker and Comte are more read by the advanced Hindus, known as 'Young Bengal,' than any Sanskrit theologian. On the same bench of a Calcutta college sit youths trained up in the strictest theism, others indoctrinated in the mysteries of the Hindu trinity and pantheon, with representatives of every link in the chain of superstition—from the harmless offering of flowers before the family god, to the cruel rites of Kálí, to whom a human victim was offered in Húglí District, twenty-five miles from Calcutta, as lately as the famine of 1866. Indeed, the very word Hindu is one of absolutely indeterminate meaning. The Census officers employ it as a convenient generic term to include 45½ millions of the population of Bengal, comprising elements of transparently distinct ethnical origin, separated from each other by language, customs, and religious rites.

But Hinduism, understood even in this wide sense, represents only one of many creeds and races found within Bengal. The other great historical cultus, which, during the last twelve centuries, did for the Semitic peoples what Christianity accomplished among the European Aryans, has won to itself one-third of the whole population of Bengal. The Muhammadans amount to nearly 22 millions; and the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal is, so far as numbers go, as great a Musalmán power as the Sultán of Turkey himself. The remaining 2½ millions of the population are composed chiefly of half savage tribes professing aboriginal religions, but include 128,000 converts to Christianity.

Amid the stupendous catastrophes of river inundations, famines, tidal waves, and cyclones of the Lower Provinces of Bengal, the religious instinct works with a vitality unknown in European countries, where the forces of Nature have long yielded to the control of man. Until the British Government stepped in with its police, and canals, and railroads, between the people and what they were accustomed to consider as the dealings of Providence, scarcely a year passed without some terrible manifestation of the power and the wrath of God. Maráthá invasions from Central India, piratical devastations on the seaboard, banditti who marched about the interior in bodies of 50,000 men, floods which drowned the harvests of many Districts, and droughts

in which a third of the population starved to death, kept alive a sense of human powerlessness in the presence of an Omnipotent fate with an intensity which the homilies of a State clergy sometimes fail to awaken. Under the Muhammadans, a pestilence turned the early capital into a wilderness, never again to be re-peopled. Under our own rule, it is estimated that 10 millions perished within the Lower Provinces alone during the famine of 1769–70; and the first Surveyor-General of Bengal entered on his maps a tract of many hundreds of square miles as bare of villages, with the words written across it, 'depopulated by the Maghs.'

Popular Religions.—The people of Bengal, thus constantly reminded by calamity of a mysterious Supreme Power, have always exhibited deep earnestness in their modes of propitiating that Power, and a singular susceptibility to new forms of faith. Great tidal waves of religion have again and again swept over the Provinces within even the brief period of the Christian era. Islám was one of several reformed creeds offered to them; and many circumstances combined to render its influence more widely spread and more permanent than that of its rivals. It was the creed of the governing power; its missionaries were men of zeal, who spoke to the popular heart; it brought the good news of the unity of God and the equality of man to a priest-ridden and caste-ridden people. Above all, the initiatory rite made relapse impossible, and rendered the convert and his posterity true believers for ever. Forcible conversions are occasionally recorded, with several well-known instances of Hindus becoming apostates from their ancient faith to purchase pardon for crime. Such cases, however, were comparatively few in number, and belonged to the higher ranks. It would also appear that a Mughal adventurer now and then circumcised off-hand the villages allotted to him in fief. But it was not to such measures that Islám owed its success in Bengal. It appealed to the people, and it derived the great mass of its converts from among the poor. It introduced a truer conception of God, a nobler ideal of the life of man; and it offered to the teeming low-castes of Bengal, who had sat for ages despised and abject beyond the outermost pale of the Hindu community, free entrance into a new social organization. So far as local tradition, and the other fragmentary evidence that survives, enable a modern inquirer to judge, the creed of Muhammad was for the most part spread in Bengal neither by violence nor by any ignoble means. It succeeded because it deserved to succeed.

Nevertheless, it conspicuously failed to alter the permanent religious conceptions of the people. The initiatory rite separated the Musalmáns from the rest of the Bengali population, and elevated the heterogeneous low-caste converts into a respectable community of Islám. But the proselytes brought their old superstitions with them into

their new faith. Their ancient rites and modes of religious thought reasserted themselves with an intensity that could not be suppressed, until the fierce white light of Semitic monotheism almost flickered out amid the fuliginous exhalations of Hinduism. A local writer, speaking from personal acquaintance with the Musalmán peasantry in the northern Districts of Lower Bengal in our own day, stated that not one in ten could recite the brief and simple *kalmá* or creed, whose constant repetition is a matter of unconscious habit with all good Muhammadans. He described them as a 'sect which observes none of the ceremonies of its faith, which is ignorant of the simplest formulas of its creed, which worships at the shrines of a rival religion, and tenaciously adheres to practices which were denounced as the foulest abominations by its founder.' Fifty years ago, these sentences would have truly described the Muhammadan peasantry, not only in the northern Districts, but throughout all Lower Bengal. In the cities or amid the palace life of the Musalmán nobility and their religious foundations, a few Maulvís of piety and learning calmly carried on the routine of their faith. But the masses of the rural Musalmáns had relapsed into something little better than a mongrel breed of circumcised low-caste Hindus. Since then, another of those religious awakenings so characteristic of India has passed over the Muhammadans of Bengal. Itinerant preachers, generally from the north, have wandered from District to District, calling on the people to return to the true faith, and denouncing God's wrath on the indifferent and unrepentant. A great body of the Bengali Musalmáns have purged themselves of the taint of Hinduism, and shaken off the yoke of the ancient social rites.

This Muhammadan revival has had a threefold effect in Bengal —religious, social, and political. It has stimulated the religious instinct among an impressionable people, and produced an earnest desire to cleanse the worship of God and His Prophet from idolatry. Its stern rejection of ancient superstitions has also widened the social gulf between the Muhammadans and the Hindus. Fifty years ago the Bengali Musalmáns were simply a recognised caste, less widely separated from the lower orders of the Hindus than the latter were from the Kulin Bráhmans. There were certain essential points of difference, of a doctrinal sort, between the Hindu and Muhammadan villager; but they had a great many rural customs and even religious rites in common. The Muhammadan husbandman theoretically recognised the one Semitic God; but in a country subject to floods, famines, the devastations of banditti, and the ravages of wild beasts, he would have deemed it foolish to neglect the Hindu festivals in honour of Krishna and Durgá. Now, however, the peasantry no longer look to their gods, but to the officer in charge of the District, for protection; and when he fails them, instead of offering

compared with that of 1872, is the decrease of the aboriginal population. This decrease is, however, apparent rather than real, and the result of a different system of classification. But it is also to some extent an index of the increasing rapidity with which the aboriginal races are merging in the general population.

Early Estimates of Population.—The Census taken during the cold weather of 1871–72 was the first that had been attempted throughout Bengal. Previous to that date, partial enumerations of special areas had been made from time to time; but these were either estimates based upon the number of houses in the District incorrectly computed, or conclusions drawn from experience and general observation, and entitled to little reliance. The population shown by the Census of 1872 far exceeded the total of any such previous estimates. With few exceptions, every District in the Province was found to be more thickly peopled than the most liberal official calculation had anticipated. In 1765, the population had been assumed at 10 millions; Sir William Jones in 1787 thought it might amount to 24 millions; Mr. Colebrook in 1802 calculated it at 30 millions. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton had, however, about this period made an estimate of the population of several Districts, which he put much higher than other authorities. In the years just before the Census, the population had been generally accepted at about 40 millions for the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, which then included Assam.

The Census of 1872 suddenly disclosed a population of 62,705,718 for Bengal, excluding Assam, or more than 50 per cent. above the previously accepted estimate. The Census of 1881, taken nine years afterwards, showed that the population had increased during that period to 69,536,861, being an advance of 6,831,143, or 10·89 per cent., which yields a yearly rate of progress of 759,015, or 1·21 per cent. A part of the increase thus shown is, however, only nominal, being due to omissions and defects in the Census of 1872.

This vast population is spread over an area of 187,222 square miles, residing in 264,765 towns and villages, and occupying 11,036,774 houses. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 45,452,806; Muhammadans, 21,704,724; Buddhists, 155,809; Christians, 128,135; Jains, 1609; Sikhs, 549; Brahmos, 788; Parsis, 156; Jews, 1059; and 'others,' consisting almost entirely of hill and jungle tribes professing aboriginal faiths, 2,091,226.

Density.—The density of the population is subject to wide variations; the average number of persons to the square mile in 1881 being 524 throughout Behar, 505 in Bengal Proper, 412 in Orissa, 156 in Chutiá Nágpur, and 77 throughout the Tributary States. The average over the whole inhabited area of the Lieutenant-Governorship in 1881

was 371 to the square mile. In the United Kingdom in 1871 the average density was 260; in Germany, 187; and in France, 180. The metropolitan Districts of Húglí, Howrah, and the Twenty-four Parganás; the trading Districts of Dacca, Farídpur, and Pabná, rich in their river communications and in the prosperity of their inhabitants; and the Behar Districts of Patná, Darbhangah, Muzaffarpur, and Sáran,—are the most populous parts of Bengal. In all these Districts there is an average population of over 700 persons to the square mile, while no less than 11 other Districts support a population of over 500 to the square mile. But though Behar and the Gangetic Delta are densely populated, there remain large tracts of territory where the people are very sparsely scattered. Thus, while the average density in Howrah District is 1334 to the square mile, in the Chittagong Hill Tracts it is only 18, and in Hill Tipperah 23. The average number of villages or rural communes per square mile throughout Bengal is 1·41; the average number of persons per village, 262; the average number of persons per house, 6·30.

Nationalities.—The Bengalis occupy the whole of Bengal Proper, together with the Districts of Maldah and Mánbhúm, parts of Purniah, and of the Santál Parganás. They number about 36½ millions. The people of Behar are Hindustánís, speaking nearly the same language as, and almost identical in their manners with, the 40 or 50 millions of Hindustánís who inhabit the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, the Central Provinces, and Rájputána. Throughout the most advanced Districts of Chutiá Nágpur they are numerous, and have introduced their language, manners, and civilisation, the aborigines having, as usual, succumbed to external influences. Altogether, the Hindustání or Hindí-speaking people within the Lieutentant-Governorship of Bengal number about 25 millions. The Uriyá speakers of Orissa, including hillmen and dwellers on the plains, are about 5½ millions.

The large number of Muhammadans (19,559,252) found in Lower Bengal was one of the most interesting of the facts brought out by the Census of 1872. During the nine years preceding 1881, their number has increased to 21,704,724, an advance of nearly 11 per cent. Little change has, however, taken place in the localisation of this religion, and the Districts where Muhammadans were most numerous in 1872 still retain their position. The vast majority, namely nearly 18 millions, are found in Bengal Proper; in Behar, they hardly number more than 3¼ millions, out of a total population of 23 millions; in Chutiá Nágpur and Orissa, they are very sparse. In Bográ District, Muhammadans form as much as 80 per cent. of the population; in Rájsháhi, 78 per cent.; and in Pabná, 72 per cent. In the Districts of Chittagong and Noákhálí, the Musalmáns constitute nearly three-fourths of the population. It is

not in the great Muhammadan capitals that the Musalmáns are most numerous. In Dacca, long their seat of government, the Muhammadans are very slightly in excess of Hindus; in Maldah District, which contained the earlier capital, Gaur, the Muhammadans form only 46 per cent. of the population; in Murshidábád, 48 per cent.; in Patná they form 12 per cent., and even in Patná city itself not more than 24 per cent. On the other hand, apart from the Districts already mentioned, in Bákarganj, Tipperah, and Maimansingh they constitute two-thirds of the population; and in Dinájpur, Rangpur, Nadiyá, Khulná, Jessor, and Farídpur, more than one half. Wherever the Muhammadans form the bulk of the population in Bengal, it will be found that they are the cultivating classes of the people, while the upper and mercantile classes are Hindus, and the very low classes are semi-Hindus, probably for the most part aboriginal in blood. All the sailors of the eastern Districts are Muhammadans.

The number of Muhammadans in Behar is comparatively small. They chiefly belong to the upper orders, and live in towns such as Patná, Barh, and Behar. The great body of the cultivating classes in Behar are still Hindus. The fabric of Hinduism was too firm in the north to be shaken by the Musalmán invasion, and the new faith produced few converts. Although aboriginal tribes are still to be found in Behar, they probably did not during the era of Musalmán conquest form so large a percentage of the population as in the delta of Bengal. Swept on before the earlier Aryan tide of immigration, large numbers of them had been exterminated, or driven down the Gangetic valley, or fled into the wilds of Chutiá Nágpur. The Aryan element in Behar was thus left to itself, and seems to have consolidated its position sufficiently to be able to resist the shock of a proselytizing faith like Islám. In Bengal Proper this was not the case. The Muhammadans found Hinduism there resting on weak foundations, and with but a feeble hold on the great bulk of the inhabitants. The Aryan element from the north, so far from displacing the children of the soil in Lower Bengal, only held its own by frequent importations of fresh Bráhman blood from Upper India. Thus it happened that, when the Musalmán conquerors of Hindustan invaded the lower delta with the sword and the Koran, they were not altogether unwelcome. They proclaimed equality, and broke down the trammels of caste. In Lower Bengal, Hinduism succumbed, and great masses of the people embraced the faith of Muhammad.

Europeans and Eurasians.—The Census of 1872 returned the Europeans and non-Asiatics within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal (including Eurasians) at 37,414. Their number, according to the Census of 1881, was 39,473. In regard to their local distribution among the four Provinces of the Lieutenant-Governorship, the

number of Europeans and non-Asiatics (including Eurasians) in Bengal Proper is (1881) 34,471. Of this total, 25,566 are found in Calcutta and its neighbourhood, 1868 in the Twenty-four Parganás, 1673 in Howrah, 1043 in Dacca, 821 in Bákarganj, 687 in Dárjíling, 772 in Bardwán, 366 in Húglí, and scarcely more than 200 in any other District. In the Province of Behar, the Europeans and non-Asiatics (including Eurasians) number 4802; 2165 being in Patná District and 890 in Monghyr. The European and non-Asiatic population in Chutiá Nágpur is very small, bringing up the total to 39,473 for the entire Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. Of these, European British born subjects number 10,583; other Europeans, 13,638; Americans, 392; Australians, 88; Africans, 67; Eurasians, 14,705. Of the Eurasian community, 9581, or more than half, are in Calcutta and the Twenty-four Parganás; 841 in Dacca; 759 in Bákarganj; and 702 in Howrah. In Dacca and Chittagong there are colonies of Firinghis, mixed descendants of Portuguese, who made these places their head-quarters in Eastern Bengal.

The population of Asiatics, other than natives of India, is 93,110, for the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. These are composed mostly of Nepálís in Dárjíling and on the northern frontier of Behar. The Armenian community consists of 802 persons, chiefly in Calcutta and Dacca; the Chinese number 309, nearly all shoemakers and carpenters in Calcutta; there are 1059 Jews, mainly in the metropolis; and 156 Parsís.

Christians, native and European together, numbered 90,000 in 1872, and 128,135 in 1881; less than one-third being Europeans or East Indians. The native converts, who number altogether 86,306 persons, are chiefly found in the Presidency, Dacca, and Chutiá Nágpur Divisions. In Chutiá Nágpur alone there are nearly 40,000 converts, who belong mainly to the aboriginal tribes. Of the different denominations of Christians in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, the most numerous are—Church of England, 23,162; Roman Catholic, 26,925; Lutheran, 23,556; Baptist, 16,985; and Church of Scotland, 3689.

Aboriginal Tribes.—The Census of 1872 returned 3,000,000 persons as belonging to aboriginal tribes, who had not adopted any form of Hinduism. In the Census of 1882, their number is given at 2,000,000 for the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. It is impossible, however, to draw any very distinct line between the aborigines and Hindu races, as they merge insensibly into one another. Large numbers of low-caste and outcaste people are aboriginal in blood, and can scarcely be said to be Hindu in any real sense, although they are entered as such in the Census returns. The low-castes have deities and religious observances of their own, and are only entered as Hindus because they do not come under any other specific race-name. The apparent decrease

of the aborigines in the Census of 1881 is due to differences in classification, and not to any diminution of their actual numbers. Many of them have during the nine years merged more closely into Hinduism.

In Bengal Proper the non-Hindu aboriginal population is 252,146, of whom 219,202 are Santáls. The semi-Hinduized aborigines number 1,608,178. Chandáls (1,564,000) are the great Pariah caste, to which was doubtless consigned the bulk of the aboriginal tribes who embraced Hinduism in Bengal; they are most numerous in the Eastern Districts. The Kochs are much the same as the Pális of Dinájpur and Maldah and the Rájbansís of Rangpur, and these castes together number considerably over a million; they are chiefly cultivators, and are evidently an Indo-Chinese race. The Bagdís (720,302) and Baorís (252,418) are the fishermen and palanquin-bearers of Western Bengal. Chamárs and Muchís (409,662) prepare hides and work in leather.

Among recognised Hindus, the Bráhmans, the Kshattriyas or Rájputs, and the Káyasths are the three superior castes. Even in these three well-defined castes differences of rank and classification exist. But the general Census return for 1881 gives the following numbers for each, within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal:—acknowledged Bráhmans, 2,754,100; Rájputs or Kshattriyas, 1,409,354; Káyasths, 1,450,843. The Bábhans or cultivating Bráhmans, chiefly in Behar, number 1,031,501. As regards the local distribution of castes in the four Provinces of the Lieutenant-Governorship, the following facts may be noted.

In Bengal Proper there are 1,076,854 Bráhmans, 1,056,093 Káyasths, 110,539 Rájputs, and 87,536 Baidiyás. The Baniyás (317,779) are the most populous of the trading castes; Goálás (613,132) are the great pastoral caste. The chief cultivating Hindu castes are the Kaibarttas (2,006,340) and the Sadgops (547,032). Among the boating and fishing castes are the Jaliyás (374,655), Teors (228,675), and Pods (324,568). Of the artisan classes, the oilmen are the most important, numbering altogether (Telís or Tilís, and Kálus) 515,042; Sunrís, or wine-sellers, number 382,506; Kumárs, or potters, 252,296; and Kamárs, or blacksmiths, 285,620; the total of all the weaving castes is close upon a million; 438,545 Vaishnavs are enumerated among the Hindus who no longer recognise caste.

In Behar, the Santáls (559,625) are the most numerous of the aboriginal tribes; the semi-Hinduized aborigines amount to about half a million. The Dosádhs (1,052,564) are the ordinary labouring class. Chamárs, or Muchís, number 882,113; Musáhars, 527,831; Bhuiyás, 182,954; Pasís, 147,041. Among Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 1,076,643; Rájputs, 1,166,593; Bábhans, 985,098; and Káyasths, 358,068. The Ahírs, or Goálás, form everywhere the largest portion

of the Hindu population, numbering 2,642,957 altogether. Of the agricultural classes, the Koerís (1,124,361) rank first, and then the Kurmís (790,523).

In the British Districts of Orissa, 4665 persons have been classed as belonging to aboriginal tribes; 123,896 as semi-Hinduized aborigines; 3,443,791 as Hindus; 66,362 as of Hindu extraction, but not recognising caste; and 85,611 as Muhammadans. The aboriginal tribes are principally found in the wild and mountainous tract which constitutes the Tributary States. Bráhmans number 394,012; the Karans and Káyasths, 103,105; the Gaurs (289,715) form the great pastoral caste, corresponding to the Goálás of Behar and Bengal. The Khandáits (544,422) are an important class in Orissa. Originally they composed the militia, and held land on military tenures; they then became cultivators, and are now hardly to be distinguished from the Chásá (375,090), or agricultural caste.

The population of Chutiá Nágpur is composed of about 1½ millions of aboriginal tribes and about 2¼ millions of Hindus. Of the aborigines, about ¾ of a million are very primitive, and about the same number have been subjected to Hindu influences. The Kols number 791,750; Santáls, 238,621; Bhuiyás, 185,573; Bhumijs, 137,282; and Kharwárs, 127,073. Nearly one-third of the Hindus of the Chutiá Nágpur Division are found in the District of Mánbhúm. The most important agricultural caste is that of the Kurmís, numbering over a quarter of a million.

The Feudatory States under the control of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal may be divided into two groups; the first consisting of the petty states attached to the Chutiá Nágpur and Orissa Divisions, 24 in number; and the other comprising the States of Hill Tipperah and Kuch Behar, which lie to the east and to the north of Bengal. The inhabitants of the first group are hillmen of Kolarian or Dravidian origin, and their condition is still very primitive. The largest tribes among them are the Gonds (93,129), Kols (62,109), and Bhuiyás (23,686). Hill Tipperah, on the other hand, is the home of a race, partly Indo-Burmese, and partly drawn from the Eastern Himalayas. In Kuch Behar, an Indo-Chinese people, the Koch, who gave their name to the territory, are represented by 300,000 souls.

Classification according to Sex and Age.—The population of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, including the dependent Feudatory States, amounted in 1881, as already stated, to 69,536,861 persons. Of this number, 34,625,591, or 49·79 per cent., were males, and 34,911,270, or 50·20 per cent., females. In Bengal Proper alone of the four Provinces making up the Lieutenant-Governorship was this proportion reversed, and here the males were 50·15 in every hundred, as against 49·84 females. The proportion of women

to men is greatest in Behar, where the number of women in 10,000 is 5076 to 4923 men. In Calcutta, the males are exactly twice as numerous as the females, the figures in 100 of both sexes being 66 and 33 respectively. In agricultural Districts, or in localities in which the density of the population or other local circumstances favour the emigration of the males, the female element predominates. Thus, in Chittagong, which sends many of its men abroad as sailors, or as labourers into Burma, the women number 53·04 in every 100 persons to 46·95 men. In Dacca, which also contributes to the seafaring population, the females number 51·14 per cent. The agricultural and thickly populated Districts of Patná Division, with the exception of Champáran, all show an excess of females. So also do the Orissa Districts of Cuttack and Balasor, and all the Districts of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, which are subject to a constant drain of men who leave their homes to work as coolies, palki-bearers, earth-work labourers and domestic servants, in other parts of Bengal.

In the first Census of Bengal, in 1872, the population was roughly divided into children and adults, the line of demarcation being drawn at 12 years of age. But at the Census of 1881 ages were more fully recorded. Divided into decennial periods, the proportions of the population in each stage were returned as follows:—Under 10 years of age, 29·69 per cent.; from 10 to 19, 17·79 per cent.; from 20 to 29, 16·84 per cent.; from 30 to 39, 14·48 per cent.; from 40 to 49, 9·66 per cent.; from 50 to 59, 5·88 per cent.; 60 years and upwards, 5·58 per cent. That is to say, out of every 100 persons of both sexes, nearly one-third are under 10 years of age, and nearly one-half, or 47·48 per cent., are less than 20 years of age. When the figures for each sex are examined separately, the apparent proportions in the second and third periods differ considerably. Between the ages 10–19, the proportion of males is 18·95 per cent., and of females 17·79 per cent.; while between 20–29, the proportion of males is 15·93 per cent., that of females is 16·85 per cent. The excess of youths as returned between 10 and 20, and of females between 20 and 30, is partly due to the fact that girls arrive at maturity sooner than boys, so that their age is frequently overstated; and partly to the reserve which natives of Bengal experience in speaking of the women of their household, and which leads them either to understate their age and describe them as children, or to overstate it and return them as middle-aged women. The proportion of children is relatively largest among the aboriginal tribes.

Town and Rural Population.—The absence of large towns is one of the most remarkable statistical features of Bengal. The population beyond Calcutta and its suburbs is almost entirely rural. With the exception of London, however, no city in the British Empire has so great a population as Calcutta, including its suburbs, the south

suburban municipality, and the municipality of Howrah on the opposite bank of the river. These various suburbs are as much a part of Calcutta as Lambeth or Chelsea is of London, and give it a gross population of 790,286. Even excluding the suburbs, the central municipality of Calcutta with its 433,219 inhabitants is only exceeded by Liverpool and Glasgow. Next to Calcutta comes Patná, the capital of Behar, with 170,654 inhabitants. In Bengal Proper, outside Calcutta and its suburbs, the largest town is Dacca, 97,076. The city of Murshidábád, the former seat of Government under the Náwabs Nazim, has now only 39,231 souls. There are altogether 33 towns in the Province with upwards of 20,000 inhabitants, and 200 with over 5000. Most of these so-called 'towns,' however, are mere collections of rural hamlets in which all the operations of husbandry are carried on. The 33 chief towns are the following:—

THIRTY-THREE TOWNS IN BENGAL (1881) CONTAINING UPWARDS OF 20,000 INHABITANTS.

Towns.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Calcutta (without suburbs),	433,219	Dinapur,	37,893
Calcutta Suburbs,	251,439	Bardwán,	34,080
Patná,	170,654	Midnapur,	33,560
Howrah,	105,206	Húglí and Chinsura,	31,177
Dacca,	79,076	Agarpárá,	30,317
Gayá,	76,415	Baránagar,	29,982
Bhágalpur,	68,238	Sántipur,	29,687
Darbhangah,	65,955	Krishnagar,	27,477
Monghyr,	55,372	Serampur,	25,559
Chapra,	51,670	Hájipur,	25,078
South Suburban Municipality of Calcutta,	51,658	Berhampur,	23,605
		Purí,	22,095
Behar,	48,968	Naihatí,	21,533
Arrah,	42,998	Bettiah,	21,263
Cuttack,	42,656	Sirájganj,	21,037
Muzaffarpur,	42,460	Chittagong,	20,969
Murshidábád,	39,231	Balasor,	20,265

The actual urban population of the 200 towns containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants amounted to 3,664,229, or about 5·26 per cent. of the entire population. In the smallness of its urban population, Bengal ranks last among all the great Provinces of India, the Central Provinces coming next with 6·04 per cent. Of the 264,765 villages and towns, no fewer than 165,263 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 67,307 had from two to five hundred inhabitants; 23,561 from five hundred to a thousand; 6994 from one to two thousand; 1058 from two to three thousand; 340 from three to five thousand; 146 from five to ten thousand; 49 from ten to fifteen thousand; 14

from fifteen to twenty thousand; 22 from twenty to fifty thousand; and 11 upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants.

The total rural population in villages and places containing less than five thousand inhabitants was 65,558,430, the average population of a 'village' or rural commune being 247·8. The boat population, under which term are included only those persons who were actually sleeping in boats on the night of the Census, and not those who obtain their livelihood from the sea or rivers, was 309,336, or ·44 per cent. of the whole population. The numbers and proportion are greatest in the Eastern Districts, where, for many months in the year, communication is almost entirely maintained by water, and where the inhabitants lead an almost amphibious existence. The proportion reaches its maximum in the City of Calcutta, where special pains were taken to enumerate the vast numbers of boats which lie along the banks of the Húglí. The Chittagong Hill Tracts come second. Khulná District stands third, with 3·70 per cent. of its whole population enumerated in boats; and the Twenty-four Parganás, the suburbs of Calcutta, Murshidábád, Dacca, Bákarganj, and Maldah each have a boat population of more than 1 per cent.

The number of houses in Bengal was returned at 11,645,383, of which 11,036,774 were occupied, and 608,609 unoccupied. This number gives an average of 6·30 to each occupied house. The average varies very slightly throughout the four Provinces outside the limits of Calcutta. In Calcutta there are 12·54 inhabitants to each occupied house.

The villages in Bengal are isolated clusters of homesteads, built without any arrangement or order, whose inhabitants live very much among themselves, and cling tenaciously to their own homes. The old communal institutions by which the village was governed are fading away under the influence of British rule and the *zamíndárí* system. The ancient indigenous village system of India still exists in the hilly country adjacent to Bengal, but in the plains it has almost disappeared. The traces that remain are scanty; in some places village *pancháyats* or conferences exist, but they are being supplanted by municipal institutions, law courts, and the influence of the landlord. The village head-man has still, however, a recognised position in the rural community, although denuded of his authoritative powers. His functions are those of an arbitrator and general adviser; and the office is to a remarkable extent in the Bengal delta hereditary in low-caste families. In the Metropolitan District surrounding Calcutta, only 15 village head-men in 1872 belonged to high castes, 1300 to intermediate castes, and 3600 to low castes.

Condition of the People.—The Census of 1881 returned the number of the population engaged in each of the great branches of occupation as

follows. But the classification is evidently an unsatisfactory one, and must be accepted with reserve. Of the whole population of 69,536,861, as many as 46¼ millions are returned as 'unemployed.' These figures include all the children and all the women who have no specific employment besides their own household work. The number of unemployed females amounts to 30,466,119 out of a total female population of 34,911,270. Of the remaining 4½ million females, almost 2 millions are employed in agricultural pursuits, and a slightly smaller number in manufactures and technical industry. Among the 34,625,591 males in Bengal, 15,830,331 are returned as unemployed, these being almost entirely children and old men. A nearly equal number (13,332,557) derive their income from land-ownership and cultivation; more than 2½ millions are employed in manufactures and technical industry; rather more than a million belong to the commercial class; rather less than a million are in service; while the remainder (624,538) are professional men or Government employés.

The people of the eastern Districts of the Province are as a rule much better off than those in the western Districts. In the first place, the rate of wages is higher in the east, while food is generally cheaper; secondly, the pressure of the population on the soil is lighter, and rents are consequently lower in comparison to the productiveness of the soil and the remunerative character of such staples as jute, etc. In Districts to the west, however, where labour is cheap and land dear, the people emigrate to other parts of the country for temporary service and labour. Thus, the people of Behar, Orissa, and Chutiá Nágpur especially every year send colonies into Bengal, besides furnishing labourers for the tea Districts. The emigration from Calcutta to countries beyond sea averages only 12,000 per annum.

The prices of common food differ much at the central marts and in the isolated tracts of the interior, being tolerably uniform in the former, but sometimes extraordinarily cheap in the latter. The increasing facilities for transport are tending to correct this; but prices are everywhere much higher than they used to be in former times. At present, in Bengal and Behar hamlets, a rupee will ordinarily purchase 20 to 25 *sers* (40 to 50 lbs.) of common rice, and in Orissa from 25 to 30 *sers*. During the last generation it would have purchased 40 *sers*, and in the generation before that, 60 *sers* and upwards. In Calcutta itself, prices of food are still dearer; there, a rupee will seldom purchase more than 16 *sers* of common rice. In Behar, however, maize and other cereals, besides rice, are consumed; and of these, a rupee will purchase as much as 35 *sers*. The wages of labour may be generally stated at 1 to 2 annas (1½d. to 3d.) a day in Behar, 2 annas (3d.) in Orissa, 3 annas (4½d.) in Northern Bengal, 4 annas (6d.) in Central Bengal, 5 annas (7½d.) in Eastern Bengal, and 4 to 6 annas (6d. to 9d.) in Calcutta.

During the last generation, the rates ranged from 1 anna to 3 annas ($1\frac{1}{2}$d. to $4\frac{1}{2}$d.), the lowest being the rate generally prevalent. On the whole, the wages of labour have risen in proportion to the prices of common food.

The indebtedness of the cultivators as a class is not so serious as it once was, but it still exists to a large extent. It is worst in Behar, less in Central and Western Bengal and in Orissa, and least in Eastern and Northern Bengal, where it has in places altogether disappeared. The ordinary rates of interest are as high as 2 pice in the rupee per month for money lent, equal to $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum; and 50 per cent. is usually paid as interest on rice advances. The security is the standing crop. The creditors are generally the village bankers; but often, also, the *zamíndárs*, or landholders. The loans are contracted partly for purchase of cattle and implements of husbandry, to some extent for law expenses, and largely for marriage ceremonies.

Agriculture—Rice.—The chief products of the Province have been already summarised. The great staple crop is rice; of which there are three harvests in the year,—the *boro*, or spring rice; *áus*, or autumn rice; and *áman*, or winter rice. Of these, the last or winter rice is by far the most extensively cultivated, and forms the great harvest of the year. This crop is grown on low land. In May or June, after the first fall of rain, a nursery ground is ploughed three times, and the seed scattered broadcast. When the seedlings make their appearance, another field is prepared for transplanting. By this time the rainy season has thoroughly set in, and the field is dammed up so as to retain the water. It is then repeatedly ploughed until the water becomes worked into the soil, and the whole reduced to thick mud. The young rice is next taken from the nursery, and transplanted in rows about 9 inches apart. If, by reason of the backwardness of the rains, the nursery ground cannot be prepared for the seed in April–May–June, the *áman* rice is not transplanted at all. In such a case, the husbandmen in June, July, or August soak the paddy in water for one day to germinate, and plant the germinated seed, not in a nursery plot, but in the larger fields, which they would otherwise have used to transplant the sprouts into. It is very seldom, however, that this procedure is found necessary. *Aman* rice is much more extensively cultivated than *áus*, and in favourable years is the most valuable crop; but being sown in low lands it is liable to be destroyed by excessive rainfall. The *áman* is reaped in November–December–January. *Aus* rice is generally sown in high ground. The field is ploughed, when the early rains set in, ten or twelve times over, till the soil is reduced nearly to dust, the seed being sown broadcast in April or May. As soon as the young plants reach 6 inches in height, the land is harrowed for the purpose of thinning the crop and to clear it of weeds. The crop is harvested in August or

September. *Boro*, or spring rice, is cultivated on low marshy land, being sown in a nursery in October, transplanted a month later, and harvested in March and April. An indigenous description of rice, called *urí* or *jára-dhán*, grows in certain marshy tracts. The grain is very small, and is gathered for consumption only by the poorest. No tabulated statistics of cultivation exist; but in 1872–73, the quantity of rice exported from Bengal to foreign ports amounted to 288,955 tons, of the value of £1,685,170; in 1881–82 the total export of rice by sea amounted to £1,840,000 in value. These figures and the similar returns of the yield or exportation of Bengal products in 1881–82 have been supplied for this edition of the *Imperial Gazetteer* by the Bengal Government. They do not always agree with the general export returns from the Bengal ports. I reproduce the figures as officially furnished to me.

Oil-seeds are very largely grown over the whole of Bengal, particularly in the Behar Districts; their export by sea in 1881–82 exceeded 2¼ millions sterling. The principal oil-seeds are *sarishá* (mustard), *til* (sesamum), and *tísí* or *masiná* (linseed). Exports of oil-seeds are principally confined to linseed, of which 107,723 tons were exported in 1872–73, and 143,206 tons in 1881–82.

Jute.—Jute (*pát* or *koshtá*) now forms a very important commercial staple of Bengal. The cultivation of this crop has greatly increased during the past twenty-five years. Its principal seat of cultivation is Eastern Bengal, where the superior varieties are grown. The crop, which grows on either high or low lands, is sown in April, and cut in August. In 1872, the area under jute cultivation in Bengal was estimated at 925,899 acres, and the yield at 496,703 tons. Jute exports from Bengal amounted in 1881–82 to 414,054 tons, value £5,548,839. Jute manufactures, in the shape of gunny-bags, cloth, rope, etc., were also exported to the value of £1,097,589. The jute crop varies greatly from year to year. The sea-borne exports of the raw and manufactured article may be taken to average about 4½ millions sterling, sometimes falling to below 3 millions and rising in bumper years to over 6 millions sterling.

Indigo.—Indigo cultivation is principally carried on with European capital. Notwithstanding the vicissitudes which it has encountered, it still forms one of the principal industries of the Province. In the Districts of Nadiyá and Jessor, and throughout Central Bengal, in Purniah, and westwards in all Behar north of the Ganges, indigo is largely cultivated; and, from its mode of cultivation, it is in many places the staple which most engrosses the attention of the people. The indigo riots of 1859–60 were, however, followed by a marked decline in the cultivation of the plant throughout Bengal Proper. In some Districts, indeed, the manufacture became extinct, in consequence of the hostility of the cultivators; and although it has since shown a

tendency to recover itself, the area under cultivation is less than it was twenty years ago; while the profits to be derived from the growth of jute, European vegetables, and valuable garden crops—betel, chillies, ginger, turmeric, etc.—render the *ráyats* averse to entering into engagements with the indigo planters. The decline of indigo in Bengal Proper has, however, been almost counterbalanced in later years by its extension in Behar and in the North-Western Provinces, and especially by its cultivation by native capitalists. The annual out-turn of the Lower Provinces greatly varies, but is now hardly less than it was thirty years ago; it may be put down at rather more than 100,000 *maunds*, say from 3000 to 4500 tons, worth from 2 to 3½ millions sterling. The total value of the indigo exported from Calcutta varied from 3½ to 4½ millions sterling during the ten years ending 1882. The crop of 1882 was above the average, the total exports from the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal amounting to 4595 tons, of the value of £3,151,259.

Two crops of indigo are raised in the year,—one sown in April or May before the setting in of the rains, and cut in August or September; the other sown in October as the waters subside, and cut in the following July.

Tea.—Tea cultivation is the other great industry in Bengal carried on by European capital. It is produced principally in Dárjíling and the Tarái, including Jalpáigurí. The yield from these Districts in 1881–82 was 7,623,561 lbs. About 487,400 lbs. were grown and manufactured on the slopes of the Chittagong Hills in the same year; 4405 lbs. in Dacca, and 208,074 lbs. in the tea-growing Districts of Chutiá Nágpur. The total approximate out-turn for the Province in 1881–82 was 8,323,440 lbs., derived from 283 gardens, with an area under plantation of 42,217 acres. Dárjíling teas stand high in the home markets; and the manufacture is receiving more and more attention every year. A demand for Indian teas in the Australian market has given additional impetus to the industry of late years. The use of machinery is rapidly extending. The average yield of tea per acre of mature plantations is about 260 lbs. This amount, though falling short of the sanguine expectations of the first days of tea-planting, is under good local management remunerative; and the prices obtained show that the average quality of the tea is good. The industry is now on a prosperous and sound footing. There are evident signs, also, that the labour question has become more easy of solution. The Dárjíling labourers are mostly Nepálís. The total value of the tea exported from Calcutta (including up-country consignments) has risen steadily from 1½ millions sterling in 1873 to 3½ millions sterling in 1882.

Opium.—The cultivation of opium is a State monopoly, no person being allowed to grow the poppy except on account of Government.

The plant is successfully cultivated in the large Gangetic tract which extends from the borders of Oudh to Agra on the west, and to the District of Bhágalpur on the east. The manufacture is carried on at two separate agencies,—that of Benares in the North-Western Provinces, of which the head station is at Gházípur; and that of Behar, with its head station at Patná. Annual engagements are entered into by the cultivators, under a system of advances from Government, to sow a certain quantity of land with poppy; the whole produce in the form of opium is delivered to Government at a fixed rate. It is a principle to leave it optional with every cultivator to enter into such an engagement or not. The area under poppy cultivation in the Behar agency, situated entirely within Bengal, amounted in 1881–82 to 143,730 acres; in the Benares agency, to 139,922 acres,—total, 283,652 acres. The number of chests of opium sold at the Government sales in Calcutta in 1881–82 was 56,400, the amount realized was £7,465,313, and the net revenue, £5,488,773. The annual sales of Bengal opium vary from 6 to 7½ millions sterling, gross.

Cinchona.—The cultivation of the cinchona plant in Bengal was introduced as an experiment about 1862, in a valley of the Himálayas in Dárjíling District; and the enterprise has already attained great success. In 1877, the total number of cinchona plants, cuttings, and seedlings was 3,817,192, which by 1882 had increased to upwards of five millions. The entire produce of the plantation in 1881–82 was 341,570 lbs. of dry bark. The quantity of the drug disposed of was 10,876 lbs., of which 4680 lbs. was sold to the public. The total revenue of the Government plantations in 1881–82 amounted to £27,221 (inclusive of £5982 realized from sales in London in 1880–81), against an expenditure of £14,188, leaving a net profit of £13,033. In order to properly estimate the value of these plantations to Government, however, it is necessary to note that in addition to this profit a large amount was saved by the substitution of this febrifuge for imports of quinine in hospitals and dispensaries. Besides the two Government plantations at Mangpu and Sittong in Dárjíling, there is a neighbouring garden belonging to a private company. For further particulars, see DARJILING DISTRICT.

Forests.—A scientific system of forest conservancy in Bengal was only started a few years ago, but remarkable progress has been already made by the Forest Department, both in putting a stop to the indiscriminate destruction of timber, and in an increase to the revenue. The area of Government 'reserved' forests, which in 1872–73 was only 156 square miles, had increased by 1881–82 to 4236 square miles; the surplus revenue of receipts over charges rose from £5413 to £23,912 in the same period. Besides reserved forest, there were also 2325 square miles of 'protected,' and 5108 square miles

of 'unreserved' forest, bringing up the total area to 11,669 square miles.

System of Land Tenures and Rent.—The land revenue of Bengal and Behar is fixed under the Permanent Settlement, concluded by Lord Cornwallis in 1793. The Government, by abdicating its position as owner of the soil, and contenting itself with a permanent revenue charge on the land, freed itself from the labour and risks attendant upon a detailed local management. The land is held by *zamíndárs*, who pay their revenue direct to Government. In default of punctual payment of the revenue fixed upon the estates, these are liable to sale at public auction. Many of the *zamíndárs* have in their turn disposed of their *zamíndárís* to under-tenants. The practice of granting under-tenures—permanent and temporary—has steadily increased, until in many Districts only a small proportion of the whole permanently settled area remains in the direct possession of the *zamíndárs*. This process of sub-infeudation has not terminated with the *patnídárs* (permanent tenure-holders) and *ijárádárs* (lease-holders). Lower gradations of sub-tenures under them, called *dar-patnís* and *dar-ijárás*, and still lower subordinate tenures, have been created in great numbers. Such tenures and under-tenures often comprise defined tracts of land; but a common practice has been to sub-let certain aliquot shares of the whole superior tenure, the consequence of which is that the tenants in any particular village of an estate often pay their rents to many different landlords,—a fraction, calculated at the rate of so many annas or pice in the rupee, to each. All the under-tenures in Bengal have not, however, been created since the Permanent Settlement. Dependent *talúks*, *gaulís*, *háolás* (*hawálás*), and other similar fixed and transferable under-tenures existed before the Settlement, and their permanent character was recognised at the time. In addition to these numerous tenures, the country is dotted with small plots of land held revenue free; the great majority of them having been granted by former Governments, or by *zamíndárs* under those Governments, as religious endowments,—grants which have been recognised and confirmed by the English Government.

The rates of rent paid by the cultivating tenant depend upon a variety of circumstances. There are rentals at the rate of 9d. an acre; there are rack-rents at the rate of 12s. an acre. There are *ráyats* with a permanent interest in the soil, whose rent was fixed fifty years ago or even before the Permanent Settlement, and is now nominal and unalterable. There are *ráyats* with a right of occupancy, whose rents are liable to enhancement only under certain conditions, and are therefore variable. There are tenants-at-will, whose rents are in many Districts at a rack-rate. There are tenants who cultivate their landlords' lands at a trifling rent, but whose actual profits are divided with the landlord.

There are tenants who have paid a quittance in money for their rents altogether; and there are tenants who pay at a lower rate than others in consideration of personal service, or from their being connected by family or marriage with their *zamíndár.* In the indigo Districts a general concurrence has been established between the planters and their tenants that indigo plant shall count in favour of the latter in fixing the rent. The *ráyat* who sows indigo compromises his dislike to that cultivation by paying a smaller rent for his land; the *ráyat* who does not sow has to pay the full rate. It is notorious also that the *zamíndár's ráyats* pay, as a rule, a lower rate than the *ráyats* of an under-tenant. The rent law of the country has been codified, chiefly in Act x. of 1859 and Act viii. (Bengal Council) of 1869. As already mentioned, a Tenancy Bill, containing a revision of the Land Law of Bengal, is now (1884) before the Legislative Council of the Governor-General.

Government Estates.—Besides the *zamíndári* lands, a considerable portion of the soil of Bengal is the private possession of Government, being managed under the direct agency of the District revenue authorities, or under special circumstances let out to a contractor upon a farming lease. The total number of these Government estates in 1881–82 was 44,376, with a current rent demand of £246,904. Hitherto the expenses of management of Government estates have been met by a lump assignment made annually from Imperial Funds. This arrangement was found inconvenient, and has now (1883) been abandoned in favour of a more methodical plan of a percentage on collections, whereby expenditure is proportioned to income. During 1881–82, the assignment for the management of Government estates amounted to £18,000, although the actual expenditure somewhat exceeded this amount.

Wards' Estates.—The management by the State of the landed properties of minors who are wards of Government, or adults incapacitated for the management of their own affairs, has been placed on a sound legal basis by Act iv. of 1870 (Bengal Council). On an average, this management comprises about 125 estates with an aggregate area of nearly 2 millions of acres, or 3300 square miles, and a rental of nearly three quarters of a million sterling per annum. The care of Government extends also to the minors themselves, for whom institutes were provided at Calcutta and Benares, where they received a good education suitable to their station. The institution at Calcutta has, however, been abolished, and a system, inaugurated in 1881, of educating the minors at the best local schools and colleges, is now on its trial.

Surveys.—The professional survey of Bengal has been almost entirely completed. It proves very valuable for the many administrative changes and improvements which are being carried out in the interior

of the Districts. But the survey embraces only the exterior boundary of the lands of each village, and affords no details of cultivation or waste. In Bengal, therefore, we are almost destitute of professionally tested information regarding the incidence of the land tax, the pressure of rents, the average of cultivation to each husbandman or each plough, the average size of holdings, and the like. The enormous expense may possibly prevent a cadastral survey being attempted throughout Bengal, although this great enterprise is now contemplated for Behar. Meanwhile a re-survey of the alluvial tracts in the basins of the great rivers is periodically accomplished, in order to make allowance for the effects of the changes constantly taking place along the banks of rivers and on the adjacent lands.

Settlements.—In Bengal Proper and Behar the general Settlement is permanent, but a fraction of the revenue is derived from lands under temporary Settlement. These lands consist chiefly of alluvial accretions and Government estates. Orissa, with the exception of a few large estates, is under a temporary Settlement. In 1837, a thirty years' Settlement was concluded, which expired in 1867, but was renewed without alteration for another period of thirty years, owing to the distress left by the Orissa famine of 1866. That Settlement still remains in force.

Manufactures.—Throughout Bengal there are the usual handicrafts, to supply local demand. Weaving and the spinning of cotton thread employ large numbers in every District; and, although the extensive import of piece-goods from England is driving the finer native fabrics out of the market, the decline appears to have been compensated by the increase of general trade. If the demand for the exquisite muslins of Dacca has been destroyed, native industry is still able to find profitable employment in weaving cloth of a stronger texture from English spun yarns. The growth of the jute trade has given an impetus to the manufacture of gunny-bags throughout the Eastern and Central Districts. The spinning and weaving of the fibre into cotton bales and grain and sugar bags, and its preparation in the raw state for exportation, afford occupation to thousands; while in Calcutta and its neighbourhood many mills are established, in working which the natives have displayed great aptitude. Carpenters, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, potters, and oil-sellers are settled in almost every village. The manufacture of the beads universally worn in necklaces by the lower orders of Hindus is a very common occupation, and one in which the women take a large share. The plaiting of wicker and basket work is the special occupation of the Dom class, a very low caste in Bengal. The native shoes are always made by Muchís or Chamárs, who have the monopoly also of all leather work. The *solá* weed which grows along with rice is manufactured by the gardener

caste into the *solá* hats or *topís* worn by Europeans, and into artificial flowers and ornaments for native ceremonies. Among the important manufactures of Bengal calling for special notice are indigo, tea, silk, sugar, and saltpetre. The two first have already been mentioned.

Silk.—The production of silk has long been an important industry. In the days of the East India Company, numerous large filatures, managed by the Company, did a valuable trade. The ruins of some of these may still be met with, and on the sites of others are seen new filatures belonging to the firms which succeeded to the Company's trade. The industry, once so flourishing, has, however, for some time been in a declining state. The extensive importation of silk from Japan and China into Europe since the opening of the Suez Canal, and the abundant yield of recent seasons in Italy, have contributed mainly to this falling off. But the quality of Bengal silk is also reported to have deteriorated. The annual value of the silk produce of Bengal is from half a million to $1\frac{1}{3}$ million sterling; average of ten years, 1867 to 1877, about 1 million. In 1882, the value of the raw silk exported from all India was only £141,700, together with £250,535 worth of silk-goods: total, under £400,000 sterling.

Sugar.—The cultivation of the date-tree and the manufacture of date sugar are extensively carried on in Jessor, and in parts of Nadiyá, the Twenty-four Parganás, and Farídpur. It is a popular and profitable business for the cultivators. The value of the sugar exported from Jessor District alone is about £160,000, almost entirely, however, for inland consumption. The average yearly exports by sea from Bengal do not exceed £150,000.

Saltpetre.—Saltpetre is refined in the northern Districts of the Patná Division in Behar. Like all branches of industry in India, its manufacture is based on a system of advances. The large houses of business contract generally with middlemen, who again give advances to the village *nuniyás*, a poor and hardy race of labourers. These men rent small patches of saliferous soil, collect the earth into large shallow pans, puddle them and drain off the water, with the saline matter in it, into earthen vessels, and then boil and strain the liquor. The crude saltpetre thus manufactured is sold to the refiners, by whom is prepared the saltpetre of commerce. The value of the annual out-turn is about £400,000.

Steam-mills.—The most remarkable manufacturing feature of the present time is the great development, in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, of steam mills for the spinning and weaving of cotton and jute in establishments of a European character under European management. There were in 1882, 20 large jute factories in and around Calcutta; and the tall smoking chimneys recall associations of the manufacturing cities of Europe. It is estimated that the annual

consumption of jute, by 5263 looms at work, is not less than 100,000 tons, and that the total value of the annual production of the mills is about £2,600,000. It does not seem probable that cotton-spinning by machinery will attain to equal proportions in Bengal. There are, however, seven cotton factories near Calcutta, employing 85,334 spindles or throstles.

Internal Trade.—The position of the classes engaged in trade and commerce in Bengal is very prosperous. The boat trade on the rivers is, for magnitude and variety, quite unique in India. Some of these country craft, with their strong gear and equipment and their skilled navigators, face the wind, storms, and waves of the estuaries of the great rivers, and will, under sail, carry a heavy cargo against the current; others, again, can only ply in the sheltered creeks and channels which spread their network over the country. In Eastern Bengal every husbandman keeps his boat, just as in other countries he keeps his cart. The registration which, prior to January 1878, was carefully carried on at some river-side stations, disclosed authoritatively the vast extent of the traffic on the navigable highways. Since the beginning of 1878, a change in the system of registration has been introduced, and the whole of the traffic coming into and going from Calcutta is now tabulated by a cordon of stations round the city, and by the different railways and river steamers. The import trade into Calcutta from the interior (exclusive of opium and railway materials) in 1881–82 was valued at £39,071,119. Goods to the value of 11 millions sterling came by country boats, $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions by river steamers, $14\frac{1}{2}$ millions by the East Indian Railway, 6 millions by the Eastern Bengal Railway, £90,000 by the Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, and $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions by road. The principal imports are—rice, £3,060,000; tea, £3,680,000; jute, £5,670,000; indigo, £2,970,000; linseed, £1,830,000; mustard seed, £980,000; wheat, £2,830,000; and silk, £1,040,000.

The landward export trade from Calcutta into the interior of the country in the same year amounted to an estimated value of £27,841,540. Goods to the value of $4\frac{1}{4}$ millions were exported by country boats, £136,000 by river steamers, $15\frac{3}{4}$ millions by the East Indian Railway, 4 millions by the Eastern Bengal Railway, £14,000 by the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway, and £1,748,000 by road. The most important exports are—European cotton piece-goods, $13\frac{1}{2}$ millions; salt, £3,510,000; and European cotton twist, £1,284,000. The largest rice-supplying Districts, arranged in the order of their importance, are—Bákarganj, the Twenty-four Parganás, Bardwán, Midnapur, Dinájpur, Bírbhúm and Húglí. Nearly half of the wheat brought to Calcutta for export comes from the North-Western Provinces, the principal Bengal producing Districts being—Patná, Sháhábád, Bhágalpur, Monghyr, Sáran,

Santál Parganás, Nadiyá, Maldah, and Murshidábád. The principal jute-supplying Districts are—Farídpur, Pabná, Dacca, Rangpur, 24 Parganás, Maimansingh, Rájsháhí, Nadiyá, Húglí, and Jalpaigurí. Linseed is principally exported from Behar; mustard seed from the North-Western Provinces and Behar, as well as from the Eastern Bengal District of Maimansingh, and the District of Goálpára within the Assam borders.

About £8,330,000 worth of European cotton piece-goods are consumed within the territories under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. The average consumption is at the rate of about two shillings and sixpence per head. The consumption is largest in Eastern Bengal, where the prosperity of the people is greatest. This part of the country stands first in the export of rice, jute, and oil-seeds, and also imports the largest quantity of commodities from Europe. In Western Bengal the consumption is less; it is a country of weavers, and the supply of native-made cloth is great. In Orissa, native weavers still retain their old position, and the supply of European piece-goods is comparatively small. The statistics show that the consumption of salt among the population is at the rate of 10¼ lbs. per head. In regard to salt also, the consumption is highest in Eastern Bengal, being 11 lbs. 15 oz. per head; then come the Western and Central Districts, both above 10½ lbs. per head. There is no insufficiency in the consumption except in Behar, where a quantity of salt extracted in the manufacture of saltpetre passes into local use, and so displaces duty-paying salt that would otherwise have been consumed by the people. A large part of the local trade of Bengal is in the hands of natives from other Provinces of India, and the enterprising Márwárís in particular have established firms in all the important commercial centres. Generally speaking, the native traders do not resort to the railway with the same confidence as Europeans. Bulky merchandise, such as rice, oil-seeds, jute, and salt, is for the most part financed for by native agents, and still prefers the old river routes. But the tendency to use the railway is rapidly on the increase.

The foreign trade of Bengal is brisk and flourishing. For many years past the exportation of raw produce has been exercising a progressive influence on the condition of the peasantry. It enables them to get increased returns for their labour, whereby they can afford to lodge, feed, and clothe themselves better than formerly, and to fill their dwellings with superior implements and furniture. New wants have arisen in proportion as the means of supplying them are augmented, together with a spirit of self-reliance and a disposition to appreciate and assert the rights which pertain to the tillers of the soil. The value of the trade of the several Bengal ports, including the imports and exports of all merchandise and treasure, both in the trade with

foreign countries and in the interportal trade, was as follows for 1881-82:—Calcutta, £64,634,509; Chittagong, £1,214,442; Orissa Ports, £989,748; Naráyánganj, £573,920: total, £67,412,619. Of this grand total, £40,181,529 are exports; £27,231,090 are imports. The total trade of Calcutta alone was £38,894,876 exports; £25,739,633 imports. Of the export trade, 15½ millions sterling were sent to Great Britain; 6¾ millions to China; 2¼ millions to the United States; and more than 1 million to the Straits Settlements, France, and Ceylon. The most important exports are—opium, £7,473,857; jute, £4,581,543; indigo, £3,151,259; oil-seeds, £2,520,682; tea, £3,528,771; hides and skins, £1,830,674; and rice, £1,844,516. In 1875-76, the value of wheat exported was £398,970, but it has since increased to above 2½ millions sterling in value. In the import trade, the main items are—cotton piece-goods, £11,430,965; metals, £1,734,191; and machinery, £488,539. Of the imports, 18½ millions are from the United Kingdom. The export trade of Chittagong and of the Orissa Ports consists almost entirely of rice, carried in coasting vessels. Chittagong imports salt direct from Liverpool, and exports some jute; but otherwise these minor ports have scarcely any direct trade with Europe.

The Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and on a much smaller scale the Mahánadí river in Orissa, with the Eastern Bengal Railway, the Northern Bengal Railway, and the great East Indian Line, form the main arteries of commerce. From these great channels a network of minor streams, and a not yet complete system of raised roads, radiate to the remotest Districts. The larger transactions of commerce are conducted in the cities, such as Calcutta and Patná, and in large rural marts, which have recently grown up under British rule. The smaller operations of trade are effected by means of village markets and countless *háts* or open-air weekly *bázárs* in every District.

Roads.—During 1881-82, the expenditure from Provincial funds on the main lines of road in the Province was £211,525, including the expenditure on six new and important feeder roads for the Northern Bengal State Railway. The construction of these feeder lines, although intended to be left to the local Committees, had to be taken in hand by the Public Works Department, as it was found that many years must elapse before the funds at the disposal of the Committees would enable them to effect any appreciable improvement in the communications between the railway stations and the local trade centres. The operations of the District Committees are primarily directed to the maintenance of existing roads, and most Districts are now provided with fairly good local roads. As a rule, a considerable proportion of the funds of the Committees is set aside for the construction or improvement of village tracks, works which bring home to the people

more clearly than larger undertakings the benefits which they receive for their contributions to the road cess. The construction and repairs of bridges, culverts, etc., absorbs the balance of the District road fund. The outlay on District roads in 1881–82 amounted to £489,701. Total on main and District roads, nearly three-quarters of a million sterling.

Railways.—Railway communication in Bengal has, of late years, been developed by a system of Provincial State Lines. In 1874, excluding the guaranteed (now Imperial) line of the East Indian Railway, and the guaranteed line of the Eastern Bengal Railway (both of which will be described below), there were only 55 miles of Provincial Railways open in Bengal, with a capital outlay of £769,000. At the end of 1881–82, the total of these Provincial Railways was 529 miles completed and opened, at an outlay of £4,050,000; 309 miles in course of construction; 780 more miles had been surveyed, and 800 miles were further projected. The financial result to Government has proved satisfactory. In 1875, the net earnings of the Bengal Provincial Railways, less working expenses, were £3805; in 1880–81 they amounted to £140,200. The following is a brief notice of each of the lines of railway actually working or under construction:—(1) The East Indian Railway. This great line runs through Bengal by two main routes. Leaving Howrah, opposite to Calcutta, the line runs north-west, till, after passing Bardwán, it divides into two branches; one known as the loop line turning to the north, and generally following the right bank of the Ganges; while the second or chord line takes a comparatively straight cut north-west across country, till it rejoins the loop-line at Lakhisarái. The united line thence proceeds along the right bank ot the Ganges, till it leaves Bengal near Baxar in Sháhábád District, and enters the North-Western Provinces. Total length of the East Indian Railway and branches in Bengal, 704 miles, broad gauge. (2) Eastern Bengal Railway. This line starts from Siáldah, just outside Calcutta, and runs in a north and north-easterly direction to the bank of the Ganges or Padda at Goalánda, with a short branch from Poradah to Damukdiha, in connection with the Northern Bengal State Railway; total length of line open, 172 miles, broad gauge. (3) The Northern Bengal State Railway, a metre-gauge line, running from Sára, opposite to the Damukdiha terminus of the Eastern Bengal Railway on the other side of the river, northwards to Siligurí, at the base of the Sub-Himálayas. This line has a length of 245 miles, and is worked at a fair profit. In 1881–82, the gross earnings amounted to £192,868, and the working expenses to £96,218, leaving a net profit of £96,650, equal to an interest of 4·61 per cent. on the capital outlay. (4) The Dárjíling Himálayan Railway continues, on a two-feet gauge, the railway from Siligurí to Dárjíling.

This hill line, commenced as a private enterprise in April 1879, was completed throughout its length of 49 miles in July 1881. During its first half-year's working, the line returned a profit of receipts over expenditure of £6737, equal to interest at 4·29 per cent. on its capital, and exceeding the Government guaranteed rate. (5) The Kaunia-Dharla and Mughal Hát Railway consists of local extensions of the Northern Bengal State Railway from Parbatipur to Dhubrí in Goalpárá District of Assam, and to a village on the Kuch Behar road. (6) The Tirhút State Railway, on the metre gauge, extends from Barh on the main line of the East Indian Railway to the right bank of the Ganges, which is crossed by a ferry, and the line continues northwards to Darbhangah, with a branch stretching north-westwards to Muzaffarpur. Length open in 1881–82, 85 miles; gross receipts, £61,215; expenditure, £35,155; net surplus, £26,060, or 4·65 per cent. on the capital expended. (7) The Patná and Gayá State Railway is a broad-gauge line, running south to Gayá town, a distance of 57 miles. Gross earnings in 1881–82, £54,819; expenditure, £34,241, leaving a net surplus of £20,578, equal to an interest of 5·34 per cent. on the capital. (8) The Nalháti State Railway, a four-foot gauge line, runs from the Nalháti Station on the loop line of the East Indian for 27 miles to Azimganj. It yielded in 1881–82 a surplus of £1280, or a return of 3·84 per cent. on its capital. The railway works, which were under construction at the end of 1881–82, but which have been completed since that year, are—(1) An extension of the Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, from Champáháti to Diamond Harbour on the Húglí, 28½ miles. (2) Extensions of the Muzaffarpur Branch of the Tirhút State Railway to Bettia and Piprá-ghát, 102 miles. (3) Extension of the Northern Bengal State Railway to Dinájpur, 20 miles. (4) Small branch railway from Baidyanáth, on the East Indian chord line, to Deogarh, a celebrated place of Jain pilgrimage, 6 miles. (5) Bengal Central Railway to Jessore and Khulná, 129 miles (just opened, February 1884). An extension of the Tirhút Railway is under construction to Simuriá, opposite Mokáma. Besides the lines enumerated above, there were 6 other separate lines, or extensions of existing lines, which were under survey at the end of 1881–82, and 11 other projected lines were under the consideration of Government. When the system is complete, the over-peopled Districts of Bengal will be brought into speedy and cheap communication with the uninhabited or sparsely populated tracts of Assam on the one side and of the fertile Chhatisgarh plateau on the other. The total length of railways in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal at present open (March 1884) may be taken at between 1600 and 1700 miles.

Among other projects in hand is the construction of a railway bridge across the Húglí, connecting the East Indian Railway with the Eastern

Bengal line on the Calcutta side of the river, so as to avoid the present cost of transhipment. A pontoon bridge already connects Howrah with Calcutta, but this is only suitable for passenger and cart traffic. After much discussion, a site for the railway bridge was selected about 23 miles north of Calcutta, near the town of Húglí; the connecting branch railway running from the Húglí station of the East Indian Railway to the Naiháti station of the Eastern Bengal Railway, a distance of $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles. The bridge, when completed, will present an imposing appearance, and the design is a novel one. The estimate for the bridge alone, exclusive of the approaches, amounts to £353,700, of which the iron-work, machinery, etc., will cost £125,000. The site selected for the bridge is a narrow reach of the river, where the main stream flows under the right bank. The depth of the main channel varies according to the season from 65 to 70 feet. The depth of water at the site of the two central piers is 24 and 36 feet below low-water mark, and it is intended that these piers should be sunk to a depth of 60 feet below the bed of the river. For steamer navigation, a clear headway of 35 feet above extreme flood level is proposed to be given. The bridge will be altogether 2100 feet in length, and will consist of a central double cantilever girder, 320 feet long, resting on two piers placed 120 feet apart in the middle of the channel; of two main girders, each 440 feet in length, and each weighing 1400 tons, one on each side of the central girder; and of two masonry viaducts, each 450 feet in length, extending inland from each shore abutment. A roadway, 26 feet wide, for a double line of rails is also provided, the extreme breadth from outside to outside of the main girders being $35\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The wrought-iron caissons for the foundations of the central piers will be 66 feet long by 25 feet broad, with semicircular ends. The girders are to be all of steel. No provision has been made for a footway outside the girders for foot passengers. The construction of the bridge was commenced in 1882, but a date cannot yet be assigned for its completion.

Canals.—The canals, navigable and for irrigation purposes, in Bengal are divided into three circles,—the Orissa, South-Western, and Son,—each of which forms a distinct system of its own. At the close of 1881–82, there were in operation in Bengal, 456 miles of navigable canal, 210 miles of canal for irrigation only, and 1943 miles of distributing channels, from which 1,326,868 acres can be irrigated. The capital invested in canals classed as productive works amounted at the close of 1881–82 to £5,245,798. The total expenditure, imperial and provincial, incurred in the irrigation branch of the Public Works Department was £559,335.

Administration.—The Civil Service is divided into two classes—the Covenanted and Uncovenanted. The former includes civil servants

who have entered into a formal covenant with the Secretary of State for India. These superior officers were formerly nominated by the Court of Directors, and passed through Haileybury; they are now selected by special open competitive examination held yearly in London. The Uncovenanted Civil Service includes all other civilians under Government employ.

The unit of the executive administration is the Magistrate and Collector, known as 'The District Officer.' The Superintendent of Police is the right hand of the Magistrate in the suppression of crime. The District jails, although placed in the hands of an officer selected for the duty, usually the Civil Surgeon, are under the general control of the Magistrate. A similar arrangement has been carried into effect in regard to schools and the Department of Education. All District officers are, *ex officio*, Registrars of deeds. The District Officer is practically the executive chief and administrator of the tract of country committed to him. At his disposal are the subordinate magisterial, police, and revenue authorities. The Sub-divisional officers, who are Assistant and Deputy Magistrates in charge of divisions of Districts, exercise within their own jurisdiction the delegated authority of the District Officer. The Sub-deputies and the Sub-divisional establishments are the agents of the superior executive officers. Above the District Magistrates are the Commissioners of Divisions. Their duties are to supervise the District Officers, and to act as channels of communication between the local officers and Government, bringing together in a compact form the information which they receive.

The management of the whole is firmly concentrated in a single man, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, who is answerable to the Government of India. His responsibility is divided by no executive council, as in Madras or Bombay. All orders issue through his secretaries in his own name; and although his policy is subject to the watchful control of the Government of India, represented by the Viceroy, yet to the Lieutenant-Governor personally belongs the honour or disgrace of a successful or an inglorious administration. In making laws for his people, he is assisted by a Legislative Council, composed partly of his principal officers, and partly of leading members of the non-official European and Native communities. In his legislative, as in his executive functions, a power of control, amounting if needful to veto, rests with the Governor-General—a power which, by reason of the English talent for harmonious proconsular rule, is very seldom exercised.

Municipal and local self-government is now beginning to play an important part in Bengal. The Bill at present (1884) before the Bengal Legislative Council will give a further extension to municipal institutions, and to the powers exercised by non-official delegates of the people in these bodies. Practically a great mechanism of popular

administration, which has for some years been working in an experimental manner, will now be organised under the supervision of the officers of Government, but consisting in a large measure of representative and elective elements.

Bengal is divided into Regulation Districts, whose advanced state has rendered it expedient to place them under the complete system of Anglo-Indian law; and non-Regulation Districts, in which this has not yet been found practicable. The latter contain territories of three distinct classes. The first of them consists, for the most part, of newly-acquired territory, to which the general Regulations have never been extended in their entirety. The second, of tracts inhabited by primitive races specially exempted from the operation of the Regulations, and to whom a less formal code of law is better adapted. The third, of semi-independent or tributary States, administered or partly administered by British officers; but whether these semi-independent States legally form part of British India is a moot point.

Criminal justice is administered by the High Court at Calcutta, the District Courts of Sessions, and the Courts of Magistrates. In respect of civil justice, the High Court of Calcutta exercises original and appellate powers, together with an ecclesiastical, an admiralty, and a bankruptcy jurisdiction. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Cause Court and Subordinate Judges, and the *Munsifs*, who are all Civil Judges.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The finances of Bengal are now arranged under four great heads—imperial, provincial, local, and municipal. The total gross revenue under all these branches for 1881–82 was £19,824,888; thus—imperial, £14,900,981; provincial, £3,762,149; local, £557,318; municipal (including Calcutta), £604,440. The principal heads of revenue were—land revenue, £3,781,103; opium, £7,535,893; salt, £2,483,613; excise, £937,392; customs, £830,727; and stamps, £1,202,392. The principal heads of expenditure were—opium cultivation, £2,054,368; law and justice (judicial courts), £696,823; administration, £147,185; land revenue, £310,209; police, £408,658; education, £277,648; and public works (excluding capital expenditure on reproductive public works), £1,345,225.

The table on the following page exhibits the *net* revenue and expenditure of the Province of Bengal (exclusive of the municipal revenue and expenditure of Calcutta) for the year 1881–82.

Of the different sources of revenue, the land revenue, excise, and stamps are managed by the District Collector and his establishments; the opium, customs, and salt revenue are under special departments. The Collector is controlled by the Commissioner of the Division, who again is subject to the orders of the Board of Revenue.

[*Sentence continued on p.* 319.

NET REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORSHIP OF BENGAL FOR THE YEAR 1881–82.

NET REVENUE.	£
Land Revenue,	3,469,680
Forest,	23,912
Excise on Spirits and Drugs,	909,153
Assessed Taxes,	144,644
Provincial Rates,	354,730
Customs,	745,897
Salt,	2,454,435
Opium,	5,478,556
Stamps,	1,148,480
Registration,	100,834
Minor Departments,	19,745
Law and Justice,	154,022
Police,	50,488
Marine,	107,933
Education,	56,047
Medical,	12,987
Stationery and Printing,	12,104
Interest,	75,973
Receipts in Aid of Superannuation, Retired and Compassionate Allowances,	8,293
Miscellaneous,	45,283
State Railways,	327,005
Irrigation and Navigation,	195,454
Other Public Works,	76,059
Gain by Exchange,	9,736
Total,	15,981,450
Municipalities,*	144,250
Local Funds,	557,318
Grand Total,	16,683,018
Less Allowances and Assignments payable under Treaties and Engagements,	117,152
Net Total,	£16,565,866

NET EXPENDITURE.	£
Interest on Funded and Unfunded Debt,	336,149
Interest on Service Funds and other Accounts,	23,075
Civil and Political Salaries and Establishments,	404,842
Civil and Political Contingencies,	95,662
Judicial Charges,	883,558
Police,	408,659
Marine,	105,506
Education,	277,488
Stationery and Printing,	226,322
Civil Furlough and Absentee Allowances,	2,782
Superannuation, Retired and Compassionate Allowances,	95,100
Miscellaneous,	35,272
Famine Relief,	3,866
State Railways,	303,447
Irrigation and Navigation,	366,023
Other Public Works,	675,755
Loss by Exchange on transactions in London,	119
Total,	4,243,625
Municipalities,*	140,457
Local Funds,	564,434
Grand Total,	4,948,516

* Excluding Calcutta Municipality.

Sentence continued from p. 317.]
This Board consists of two members, each of whom exercises full powers in his own department: one devoting his attention to the land revenue, the second to all other sources of revenue. The opium branch of the revenue is under the management of two opium agents—one stationed at Patná and the other at Gh“ázípur; but although the latter station lies in the North-Western Provinces, both the agents are subordinate to the Government of Bengal. They are aided by a local staff of assistants and sub-deputy agents. At the head of the Customs is a special Collector. The minor custom-houses at Chittagong and Orissa are under the control of the District Officers.

It is scarcely too much to say that, so long as the British power retains the port of Calcutta and the rich Provinces under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, it would have sufficient revenue to effect the re-conquest of India if any accident should happen in the Punjab or North-West. But the vast income which the Lower Provinces yield is not altogether derived from their own people. China yearly contributes to it about $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions in the shape of opium duty, and the inland parts of India contribute over a third of a million to the customs of Bengal. Taking the average thus obtained from other territories and from tributes at under 8 millions, the population subject to the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal pays, in imperial, provincial, local, and municipal taxation, nearly 12 millions sterling *gross*, or about three shillings and sixpence a head.

Military Force.—The army employed in the territories under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal numbered in 1881–82 only 7875 officers and men, exclusive of a regiment of Madras Native Infantry 720 strong, stationed at Cuttack in Orissa; making a gross total of troops in Bengal of about 8500 men. Of this small force about 4000 are massed in Calcutta and its environs, with a view to their proximity to the seaboard, rather than with an eye to the internal requirements of the country; about 4000 guard the frontiers, with detachments on the lines of railway, which now form the great highways of Bengal. Taking 8500 as the total military force stationed in Bengal, 2800 consist of European troops and English officers, and 5700 of Native officers and men. The Government is a purely civil one, and the existence of any armed force is as little realized as in the quietest districts of England. Of the $69\frac{1}{2}$ millions of people under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, probably 40 millions go through life without once seeing the gleam of a bayonet or the face of a soldier.

Police, and Criminal and Civil Justice.—Internal order and protection for person and property are secured by a large body of police. This force consists of two elements: a regular constabulary introduced by the English Government, and an indigenous police developed out of

the rural watch of the ancient Hindu commonwealth, and paid by grants of land, or by the villagers and landowners. In 1881–82, the strength of the regular police in Bengal was 78 superior officers, and 17,669 inferior officers and men. To these must be added the municipal police—returned at 6073—total, 23,820. The village watchmen are not under regular police control, although they discharge police duties. The total number of village watchmen in Bengal is put down at 183,641; and the cost of their support, which is defrayed by the villagers, is estimated at £589,634. The total number of persons brought to trial during the year 1881 was 217,964. Of these, 67,498 were discharged without trial or were acquitted, and 147,210 were convicted; 228 persons were found guilty of murder, 203 of culpable homicide, and 135 of *dákáití* or gang robbery. The commonest offences are theft, 12,102 convictions; and assault, 12,803 convictions. The daily average prison population was 16,747, of whom 664 were women. These figures show 1 prisoner always in jail to every 4150 of the population, and 1 woman in jail to every 52,577 of the female population. The jail death-rate was 6·65 per cent. The total number of civil suits disposed of in 1881 was 414,346; of these, 144,587 were suits for money, etc., and 149,119 rent suits.

Education.—The number of scholars in all the schools supported, aided, or inspected by Government was, in 1881–82, a little over a million, or 11 per cent. of the children of a school-going age, assumed at 10 millions. The standard of instruction is virtually determined by the standard fixed in the examinations for scholarships. There are about 1200 scholarships annually divided between the primary, secondary, and superior schools. The grant-in-aid principle is generally in force. With few exceptions, the whole of the primary and secondary schools, and a large portion of the superior schools and colleges, are aided or private institutions, receiving a subsidy from the State on the condition of conforming to certain rules and submitting to Government inspection. The eight Government colleges and the normal schools are the only purely Government institutions in Bengal. In 1881–82, out of a total expenditure of £641,200 on education, £265,000 was paid by the State, and £376,200 by the people. The primary schools had 880,937 scholars, or about 80 per cent. of the whole. These elementary institutions are almost entirely developed out of the indigenous schools of the country, and give the education which the people themselves had found most suitable long before the British Government took the task of popular instruction in hand. The primitive teaching of the old indigenous school is imparted in an improved form and of a better quality, in our elementary schools. But it has been the aim of the Bengal Government to develope public instruction on the basis of the indigenous institutions; and to improve those institutions without superseding

them. The schools of secondary instruction were 1894 in number, with 141,095 scholars. At the head of these stand the *zilá* or District schools, established by Government at the head-quarters of each District. In them candidates are prepared for the matriculation examination of the University of Calcutta. The University is, strictly speaking, an imperial rather than a provincial institution, as it exercises functions over the whole of the Bengal Presidency; but its seat is in Calcutta, and the majority of its students belong to the Lower Provinces. Its function is to examine and confer degrees. The students for degrees must study at certain affiliated colleges, of which there are six in the interior of Bengal—at Patná, Dacca, Cuttack, Húglí, Rájsháhí, and Krishnagarh. In Calcutta, two Government and four private colleges receive grants-in-aid from the State.

Newspapers. — In 1881–82, there were 13 principal newspapers published in the vernacular, and about 38 of less importance, some of them merely broadsheets, or 51 in all; but the number is constantly changing. The circulation of the 13 principal vernacular papers is believed to aggregate 7900 copies, that of the lesser papers about 11,700 copies. Apart from advertising sheets, there were 16 newspapers published in English within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal in 1881, with an aggregate circulation of 15,000 copies. Of this circulation, about two-thirds are assigned to the Calcutta daily papers, *The Englishman*, *The Indian Daily News*, *The Statesman*, and *The Indian Mirror*. A weekly paper, *The Hindu Patriot*, conducted by native gentlemen, but printed in English, also deserves special mention. The *Calcutta Review* is a high-class quarterly, to which many of the leading Indian administrators, soldiers, and statesmen have contributed during the past half-century.

Climate.—Although Bengal is, for the most part, situated outside the tropical zone, its climate to the south of the Himálayas is characteristically tropical. The mean temperature of the whole year varies between 80° F. in Orissa and 74° in parts of Assam; that of Calcutta being 79°. In the hill station of Dárjíling, with an elevation of 6685 feet above sea level, the mean temperature is about 54°, and occasionally falls as low as 24° in the winter. In the annual range of their temperature, as well as in point of humidity and rainfall, the eastern and western portions of the Province are strongly contrasted. In Cachar, nearly 200 miles from the sea, the mean temperature of June is 82°, that of January 64·5°; and the highest and lowest temperatures recorded in a period of 5 years, namely 99° and 43°, show a range of 56°. At Chittagong, on the sea-coast, the range does not exceed 49°. On the other hand, Patná, with a mean temperature of 87·2° in June, and 60·7° in January, registered in 1869 a maximum temperature of 116·3 in May, and a minimum of 36·9 in January, giving an absolute

range of 79·4°. The highest recorded temperature in Calcutta is 106°, and the lowest 52·8; giving an extreme range of 53°. During the rains the temperature of the Hazáribágh plateau, to the west of the Delta, falls more rapidly than that of any other part of Bengal. Between May and October, the fall at Hazáribágh is rather over 11°, while at Berhampur, in about the same latitude, it is only about 4½°, and at Calcutta little more than 3°. The excessive humidity of the atmosphere in Bengal, especially in the eastern Districts, has become proverbial. It is greatest on the coast of Orissa and the Sundarbans, and diminishes inland as the distance from the sea increases. The Districts of Eastern Bengal, including Cachar and Sylhet, and the Himálayan *tarái*, are those of the heaviest rainfall. The average annual fall throughout those Districts amounts to over 100 inches, and on the exposed hill flanks and at their foot, this amount is greatly exceeded. Thus, Sylhet has an annual average of 141 inches; Dárjíling, 126 inches; Baxa, 280 inches; and Chara Púnjí, 527 inches, the highest average rainfall hitherto recorded in the world. The rainfall is also higher along the coast than on the inland plains. Thus, Ságar island, at the mouth of the Húglí, has an average of 80 inches, and Calcutta only 66; False Point 74 inches, and Cuttack only 52½ inches. The lowest rainfall is in the south of Behar, where the annual fall does not much exceed 40 inches. North of the Ganges, it increases gradually up to the Himálayas; and from the southern bank, the rainfall rises by degrees, up to the high ridge of forest-clad country drained by the Son, the Dámodar, and their tributaries. In Calcutta, the highest rainfall recorded is that of 1871, when it amounted to 93·31 inches; in 1837, the registered fall was as low as 43·61 inches. By far the greater part of the rainfall occurs between June and October. Showers fall also in the hot weather months, and hailstorms are not infrequent in February and March. In the Eastern Districts rain occurs occasionally in the cold weather, but is less common in the Delta and the Districts of western Bengal.

Medical Aspects; Vital Statistics.—Apart from the large hospitals in the city of Calcutta, charitable medical relief was afforded in 1881 by 231 hospitals or dispensaries; the total number of persons treated during the year being 970,978, of whom 23,444 were in-door and 937,534 out-door patients. Six lunatic asylums contained a daily average of 893 inmates. The registered death-rate for the Province in 1881 was 20·96 per thousand, or a total of 1,243,257 out of a total population of 65 millions where the registration system is compulsory. This average is almost certainly below the truth, owing to imperfections in the returns. The death-rate among the prison population was as high as 66 per thousand.

CONCLUSION.—The cheapness of labour, as compared with European

countries, enables the Government to perform its functions at a small cost. It has brought courts very near to the door of the peasant, and has established a system of registration by which proprietary rights and transfers are cheaply recorded and ascertained. A great department of public works has spread a network of roads over the country, connected Bengal by railways with other parts of India, and is endeavouring to control the rivers and husband the water supply, on which the safety of a tropical people depends. An organized system of emigration watches over the movements of the landless classes, from the overcrowded or unfertile Districts of the west to the rich underpopulated territories on the east, and to colonies beyond the seas. Charitable dispensaries, and a well-equipped medical department, struggle to combat the diseases and epidemics which from time immemorial have devastated the Delta, and to place the operations of European surgery within the reach of the poorest peasant.

Beni.—Town in Tirohá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated on the Wainganga river, about 50 miles north-east of Bhandárá town. Population (1881) 2439, namely, Hindus, 1898; Kabírpanthís, 416; Muhammadans, 72; Jains, 2; aboriginal tribes, 51; number of houses, 247. Small trade in locally-manufactured cotton cloth. The dyers of the village are noted for the excellence of their colours, and for their tasteful patterns for carpets, etc. Village school.

Beniganj.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 21 miles south-east of Hardoi Town, and 16 miles north of Sandíla. A thriving Ahír village of 2483 inhabitants (1881), and 386 mud houses; police post; Government school; weekly market.

Beni Rasúlpur.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the Kankái river; distant from Kadbá 6 miles, and from Purniah town 26 miles. Lat. 25° 37′ N., long. 87° 52′ E. Beni Rasúlpur is the only village in the District with a considerable number of masonry buildings, and is the residence of the Muhammadan *zamíndárs* or landholders.

Benugarh.—Fort in the Krishnaganj Sub-division of Purniah District, Bengal. Only the foundations and portions of the walls remain, and the history of this and other ruins in the neighbourhood is involved in obscurity. The fort is one of five which, according to local legend, were built in a single night by five brothers, Bráhmans, who are said to have lived in the Vikramáditya period, or about 57 B.C.

Berar.—*See* HYDERABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS.

Berdí.—Town in Sausár *tahsíl*, Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2504, namely, Hindus, 2428; Kabírpanthís, 8; Muhammadans, 57; Jains, 5; aboriginal tribes, 6.

Berhampur.—*Táluk* in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Houses, 54,348; population (1881) 303,303, namely, males 146,853,

and females 156,450. Area, 475 square miles, containing 5 towns and 527 villages. Land revenue demand (1881–82) £55,770. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 10 police stations; strength of regular police, 126. Chief town, Berhampur.

Berhampur (*Berhampore, Brahma-pur*).—Town and military station in the Berhampur *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 18′ 40″ N., long. 84° 47′ 50″ E. Situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 525 miles north-east from Madras, 18 miles south-west of Ganjám and 13 miles from Chatrapur (Chetterpur), and connected by a good road with Gopálpur, distant 9 miles, on the coast. Houses, 4973; population (1881) 23,599, namely, Hindus, 21,692; Muhammadans, 1401; and Christians, 506. Of the adult males, 18 per cent. are traders and 12 per cent. weavers. Municipal income, £2285 per annum; incidence per head (exclusive of military population), 1s. 3¾d. The military force consists of one wing of a native regiment. Being the head-quarters of Ganjám District, Berhampur possesses all the public buildings and establishments of a station of first-class importance—sessions court-house, magistrate's court, District jail and police-station, college, two churches, post and telegraph offices, etc. A considerable trade is carried on in sugar, and silk cloth is manufactured from Chinese and Bengal cocoons. The Madras Bank has opened a branch here. The town is built upon a rocky ledge, surrounded by an extensive cultivated plain sloping towards the sea-coast and bounded by hills on the west and north, from 5 to 6 miles distant. In 1880–81, the registered birth-rate was 21·1 per 1000 of population, and the registered death-rate 20·9; the sum allotted for sanitary purposes was £458. The town has always been unhealthy. The cantonment, as distinct from the old town, is known as Baupur.

Berhampur (*Berhampore, Bahrámpur*).—Large municipal town and administrative head-quarters of Murshidábád District, Bengal, and till within the last few years a military cantonment; situated on the left bank of the Bhágírathí, 5 miles below the city of Murshidábád. The population, which in 1872 numbered 27,110, amounted in 1881 to 23,605, namely, 18,167 Hindus, 5188 Muhammadans, and 250 Christians and 'others.' The decrease is owing to the abandonment of Berhampur as a military station. Area of town site, 6505 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £1678; expenditure, £1679. Berhampur was first selected as a site for military barracks in October 1757, shortly after the battle of Plassey; the factory house at Kásimbázár having been destroyed by Suráj-ud-daulá, and the fortifications dismantled in the previous year. A *sanad* (grant) was obtained from Mír Jafar for 113 acres of ground; but the Court of Directors disallowed the project, and it was not until 1765 that the present barracks were commenced, the immediate object of their construction being to

secure Bengal against such another occurrence as the revolt of Mír Kásim in 1763. The barracks were completed in 1767, at a cost of £302,270. They still form the most prominent feature of the town, though of late years they have been rarely occupied by European troops, and have now (1881) been to a great extent appropriated to other uses. In 1786, they contained 2 regiments of Europeans, 7 or 8 of Sepoys, and 15 or 16 guns. By 1857, this garrison had dwindled down to 1 battalion of Native Infantry, 1 of irregular cavalry, and 2 guns. After the Mutiny, European troops were again stationed here, but they were finally withdrawn in 1870. The cantonment will always be remembered as the scene of the first overt act of mutiny in 1857. The Sepoys of the 19th Native Infantry, who had been intensely excited by the story of the 'greased' cartridges, rose, on the night of the 25th February, in open mutiny, but were prevented from doing any actual harm by the firm and at the same time conciliatory behaviour of their commanding officer, Colonel Mitchell. An account of this event will be found in Sir John Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War* (3rd edition, pp. 496–508), quoted in a condensed form in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ix. pp. 77–80. The civil courts are about a mile from the barracks south-west; the treasury, magistrate's and collector's offices, jail, and lunatic asylum are within them. There are several churches in the town, and the cemetery contains some interesting memorial stones. A Government college, founded in 1853, was in 1880–81 attended by 33 students.

Beri (*Behri*, *Bheri*).—Petty State in Bundelkhand, Central Indian Agency, lying between 25° 53′ and 25° 57′ 45″ N. lat., and between 79° 54′ 15″ and 80° 4′ E. long.; area, about 30 square miles; population (1881) 4985, namely, Hindus, 4754, and Muhammadans, 231; revenue, £2100. The chief is a Puár Rájput. He holds his territories by an *ikrárnáma*, or deed of fealty and obedience to the British Government, and a *sanad* from the Government confirming possession. He has also a *sanad* of adoption. He maintains a force of 25 cavalry and 125 infantry. Chief town, Beri, situated on the left bank of the Betwa river, about 20 miles south-east of Kalpi.

Beri.—Town and municipality in the Rohtak *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab, situated on the high road between Delhi and Bhiwání. Lat. 28° 42′ N., long. 76° 36′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 9695, namely, 8876 Hindus, 3 Sikhs, 3 Jains, 813 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 1906 acres. A third-class municipality, with an income, in 1880–81, of £902; expenditure, £863. Founded A.D. 930 by an eponymous trader of the Dogra caste. Great mercantile centre of the neighbourhood, and the residence of many wealthy bankers; two largely frequented fairs, in February and October, in honour of the goddess Deví, at the latter of which a pony and donkey show is held.

Formed part of the *jágír* granted by the Maráthás to George Thomas, who took it by storm from a garrison of Játs and Rájputs. Police station, post-office, school, municipal hall.

Beria.—Ancient town in Nimár District, Central Provinces, 28 miles north-east of Khandwá town. Founded in the time of the Ghorí dynasty of Málwá, between the 14th and 16th centuries. A large reservoir two miles south of the town, constructed by these kings, which had fallen into ruins, was repaired in 1846. It now irrigates about 200 acres of land, and provides the town with a pure water supply. The town contains a handsome Jain temple, and is the residence of a good many merchants of that faith.

Beridi.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 14 square miles; land revenue, £450.

Berni.—Prosperous agricultural town in the west of *parganá* Jalesar, Etah District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the unmetalled road from Jalesar to Sháhábád, distant 5 miles west-south-west from the former place, and 29 miles from Etah town. The population, which in 1872 amounted to 1493 souls, had increased in 1881 to 3736. Village school.

Beronda.—State in Bundelkhand, Central Indian Agency.—*See* BARAUNDA.

Berúl.—Village in Arvi *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2128, namely, Hindus, 1871; Muhammadans, 83; Jains, 51; aboriginal tribes, 123.

Betágáon.—Large village or collection of hamlets in Rái Bareli District, Oudh.—*See* BHETARGAON.

Betangá.—Trading village on the Chandná river, in Farídpur District, Bengal. Lat. 23° N., long. 89° 57′ E. Population (1881) 976. Chief articles of trade, rice and pulses.

Betáwad (*Botáwad*).—Town in the Bhusáwal Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 13′ 30″ N., long. 74° 57′ E. Population (1881) 5282, namely, Hindus, 4307; Muhammadans, 847; Jains, 73; 'others,' 55; area of town site, 60 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £111; rate of taxation, 9d. per head of population (3045) within municipal limits; expenditure, £103. Formerly the head-quarters of a revenue sub-division. Post-office.

Betgárí.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 52′ N., long. 89° 11′ E. Chief trade—rice, tobacco, jute, and gunny.

Betí. — Village in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh.—*See* BEHTI.

Betigeri.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; 1 mile from Gadag. Lat. 15° 26′ N., long. 75° 41′ E. Together with the neighbouring town of Gadag, Betigeri forms a municipality; joint

municipal income (1880–81), £1399; expenditure, £1233; rate of taxation, 1s. 8d. per head of the joint population (17,001) within municipal limits. Betigeri is the seat of a weekly market, and has a considerable trade in cotton, and cotton and silk fabrics. The value of the transactions in raw cotton alone is estimated at upwards of £50,000 a year.

Betmangala.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State. Area, 260 square miles; land revenue (1874–75), exclusive of water rate, £9539, or 2s. 7d. per cultivated acre. Head-quarters at Bowring-pet. The river Palár runs through the *táluk*, and forms here the large Rámaságar tank. An auriferous tract lies on the west, and near the village of Markupam are gold mines; the southern borders of the *táluk* abut upon the Eastern Gháts.

Betmangala.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State; on right bank of Palár river, 18 miles south-east of Kolár by road. Lat. 13° 1′ N., long. 78° 22′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 1302. An ancient place, said to have been founded in the time of the Chola kings. It has now lost its prosperity, partly from the opening of the railway which diverted the former through passenger traffic, and partly from the transfer of the *táluk* head-quarters in 1864 to Bowring-pet.

Bettádpur.—Mountain in Mysore District, Mysore State; 4350 feet above sea level. Lat. 12° 28′ 20″ N., long. 76° 8′ 20″ E. It is conspicuous for its conical shape, and on its summit stands a celebrated temple of Mallikarjuna, which has been struck by lightning. At the foot lies the village of Bettádpur, the principal seat of the Sanketi Bráhmans; population (1881) 2313. It is associated with the name of Chengal Ráya, a Jain prince of the 10th century, who is said to have been converted to the tenets of the Lingáyats. Until the time of Tipú Sultán, it was the residence of an independent chieftain.

Bettiá.—Sub-division of Champáran District, Bengal, lying between 26° 35′ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 83° 53′ 30″ and 84° 51′ E. long.; area, 2013 square miles; number of villages, 3172; number of occupied houses, 128,979; population (1881) 704,052, namely, 597,173 Hindus, 105,054 Muhammadans, and 1825 Christians; average density of population, 350 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·58; houses per square mile, 66·6; persons per village, 221; persons per house, 5·4. The Sub-division was formed in 1852. It contains two magisterial and revenue courts, and comprises the 3 *thánás* (police circles) of Bettiá, Lauriyá, and Bagahá; strength of regular police force, 119 men; village watchmen, 1307.

Bettiá.—The largest town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated on the Harhá river. Lat. 26° 48′ 5″ N., long. 84° 32′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 21,263, namely, 13,943 Hindus, 6014 Muhammadans, and 1306 Christians and 'others.' Area of town site, 5901 acres. A

second-class municipality, consisting of 9 members. Municipal income in 1880-81, £693; expenditure, £780. Bettiá is the most important trade-centre in Champáran, and would be even more frequented if water communication could be kept open all the year by the Harhá and Gandak rivers. The Tirhút State Railway is now (1883) in course of construction from Muzaffarpur through Motihárí to Bettiá. The most noteworthy building is the palace of the Mahárájá of Bettiá, the wealthiest of the three great Champáran landlords, situated on the west side of the town. Close to it are the Roman Catholic church and mission-house. This mission was founded in 1746 by an Italian priest, who established himself at Bettiá on the invitation of the Mahárájá. The converts, being principally descendants of Bráhmans, hold a fair social position, but some are extremely poor. About one-fourth are carpenters, one-tenth blacksmiths, one-tenth servants, and the remainder carters. The town lies very low, and the surrounding country becomes a swamp during the rains. A large fair in honour of Ráma is held in the town in October, which lasts for fifteen days, and is attended by from 25,000 to 30,000 persons. Cloth and brass and iron utensils are largely sold, as well as minor articles, such as toys, sweetmeats, etc. A large charitable dispensary is established here.

Bettur.—Village in Davangere *táluk*, Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 29′ N., long. 76° E.; population (1881) 919. Said to have been the capital of the Yádava kings of Devágiri during the 13th century.

Betúl (*Bitool*).—District in the Chhindwára Division of the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 21′ and 22° 25′ N. lat., and 77° 8′ and 78° 20′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by Hoshangábád District, on the east by Chhindwára, while of its southern border the eastern half touches Amraoti District, and the western half marches with Ellichpur. Population (1881) 304,905; area, 3905 square miles. The administrative head-quarters are at Badnúr.

Physical Aspects.—Although essentially a highland country, with a mean elevation of 2000 feet above the sea, this District divides itself naturally into several portions, distinguished by their appearance, their soil, and their geological formation. BETUL, the chief town, occupies the centre of the District. It lies in a level basin of rich land, composed of a deep alluvial deposit, entirely devoid of black soil. This tract is almost entirely under cultivation, being studded with numerous and thriving village communities. Through it flow the perennial streams of the Machná and Sámpná, while on every side except the west steep ridges of igneous rocks shut it in. Westward, the Táptí winds through a deep valley clothed with dense jungle. Here, at intervals, rocks emerge from beneath the trap. Below this fertile plain, a rolling plateau of basaltic formation spreads over the southern part

of the District, with the sacred town of Multái at its highest point, till it is lost in the wild and broken line of mountains which parts Betúl from the low country beyond. Fruitful valleys lie between the successive ridges of trap rock, and in a few places the shallow soil on the tops of the hills has been turned to account. But most of the land is barren; trees rarely occur; and the southern face of the District is bare and desolate. Above the town of Betúl extends a tract of poor land, thinly inhabited and meagrely cultivated, ending in the main chain of the Sátpura Hills, beyond which a considerable fall takes place in the general level of the country. To the north lies an irregular plain of sandstone formation, well wooded, and presenting in places the appearance of a vast park; but the soil is for the most part unfit for the plough, and barely rewards the labours of the few cultivators. On the extreme north, the District is bounded by a line of mountains rising sheer out of the great plain of the Narbadá (Nerbudda). The western portion of this region is a mass of hill and jungle, inhabited almost wholly by Gonds and Kurkús. It has but few hamlets, scattered over wide tracts of waste land, and seen from some neighbouring height, it appears a vast unbroken wilderness. Besides the Táptí, the Wardhá and the Bel rise in the high plateau of Multái, which thus sends its waters both to the western and eastern coasts. The Tawá flows for a short distance only through the north-east corner of the District. The Machná, the Sámpná, and the Moran are the only other rivers of any size; but throughout Betúl, and especially among the trap rocks, a number of small streams retain water in places all the year round. Some use is made of them for irrigation. Outcrops of coal occur at several places; but the seams are not of sufficient thickness to render it probable that they can be profitably mined. Forests cover a large extent of country. Two of the best timber-bearing tracts, with a total area of 287 square miles, have been reserved by the Government as 'first-class reserves.' They contain abundance of young teak, some magnificent *sáj* (Pentaptera glabra), *kawá* (Pentaptera arjuna), *shísham* (Dalbergia latifolia), *sálai* (Boswellia thurifera), and other excellent timber. The second-class reserved State forests extend over 852 square miles. The Betúl forests yielded in 1880-81 a revenue to Government of £4186, as against an expenditure of £1398.

History.—In early times, Betúl formed the centre of the Gond kingdom of Kherlá; but the history of this dynasty is comprised in an occasional mention of Ferishta. From him we learn that in the 15th century a contest was carried on with varying success between the Gond princes of Kherlá and the kings of Málwá. Later, it is said, a Gaulí power supplanted the ancient Gond chiefs, but again yielded to an uprising of the aborigines. Be this as it may, about 1700, Rájá Bakht Buland, by race a Gond, but a convert to the religion of Islám,

reigned at Deogarh over the whole of the Nágpur country below the *gháts.* He was succeeded by his son, who died in 1739, leaving two boys of tender years. Disputes as to the succession led to the interference of Raghují Bhonsla, the Maráthá ruler of Berar, and ended in the virtual annexation of Betúl to the kingdom of the Bhonslas. In 1818, after the defeat and flight of Apá Sáhib, this District formed part of the territory ceded to the British for payment of the military contingent; and by the treaty of 1826, Betúl was formally incorporated with the British possessions. Detachments of English troops were stationed at Multái, Betúl, and Sháhpur in 1818, in order to cut off Apá Sáhib's flight westward from Pachmarhi, but he evaded them and escaped. A military force was quartered at Betúl until June 1862.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 284,055 persons, living on an area of 4118 square miles. Subsequent transfers reduced the area of the District to 3965 square miles, with a population (in 1872) of 273,890. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 304,905, showing an increase of 31,105, or 11·32 per cent. in the nine years. This population was distributed throughout 1172 towns and villages; number of houses, 63,725, of which 58,603 were inhabited, and 5122 uninhabited; average density of population, 78·1 per square mile; number of houses, 15·01 per square mile; inmates per occupied house, 5·2. Divided according to sex, there were—males, 154,426, and females, 150,479; proportion of males in total population, 50·65 per cent. According to religious classification, Hindus numbered 182,260; of Kabírpanthís, 132; Satnámís, 2; Muhammadans, 5032; Christians, 34; Jains, 942; aboriginal tribes, 116,503. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, who numbered 87,645 in 1881, of whom 2873 were returned as Hindus, the remaining 84,772 still following their primitive faith. The second tribe of importance is that of the Kurkús (31,690 in 1881, including 983 Hindus). The remaining aboriginal population consists of Bhíls, Bharias, etc. Among the Hindus, in 1881, the Bráhmans numbered 3012, the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Rájputs (5572), Kunbís or Kurmís (45,469), Bhuiyas (17,097), Dhers or Mhars (20,487), and Ahírs (15,078). The Gonds are found in all the jungle villages, where they live by labour in the field. They are sub-divided into about 20 tribes, and into at least 12 religious sects, distinguished by the number of gods each worships, seven being the favourite number. The lowest caste adores an indefinite but less important multitude, being obliged to content itself with the deities who chanced to be omitted when the legendary distribution of gods to each sect took place. The Kurkús have a faith different from that of the Gonds, and rather imitative of Hinduism. But, like the Gonds, they worship their ancestors, they 'wake' the dead, and celebrate births and

marriages with drinking bouts. Among these tribes a suitor will serve for his wife for a fixed period, after the manner of Jacob. Both Kurkús and Gonds live from hand to mouth, and often suffer great privations in seasons of scarcity. Classified according to occupation, the Census Report divided the male population into six main classes, as follow:—(1) Professional class, including Government officers and the learned professions, 3212; (2) domestic servants, etc., 1129; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 1673; (4) agricultural and pastoral classes, including gardeners, 74,823; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 13,721; (6) indefinite and unproductive (comprising 7104 labourers, and 52,764 unspecified, including children), 59,868.

Division into Town and Country.—Only five towns in the District have a population exceeding two thousand—BETUL, 4693; MULTAI, 3423; BADNUR, 2881; BHESDEHI, 2653; and ATNER, 2429. Townships of one to two thousand inhabitants, 24; from two hundred to a thousand, 505; villages of less than two hundred inhabitants, 638.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3904 square miles, only 991 were cultivated in 1880; and of the portion lying waste, 278 miles were returned as grazing land, and 821 as available for tillage; 10,470 acres were returned in the same year as irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 7d. per acre of the cultivated land, or 3½d. on the cultivable land. The chief crops consist of wheat and pulses. Wheat is sown in October. No manure is used, and the fields are very rarely irrigated. The grain ripens early in the spring. In the hills, the villagers formerly practised the *dáhya* system of cultivation. After clearing a piece of ground on a slope or on the edge of a stream, they cover the surface with logs of wood, and these again with brushwood. Before the rains, but not until the hot weather has thoroughly dried it, they set the wood on fire; finally, after the first fall of rain, they scatter the seed among the ashes, or, where the ground is steep, throw it in a lump along the top of the plot to be washed to its place by the rains. This practice has recently been stopped, owing to the indiscriminate destruction of valuable forest timber it caused. The acreage under the different crops was thus returned in 1880–81:—Wheat, 117,376 acres; rice, 17,850; other food-grains, 412,921; oil-seeds, 83,384; sugar-cane, 8319; cotton, 1606; other fibres, 3291; tobacco, 89; vegetables, 2193; other crops, 154. The average number of acres cultivated in 1881 by each head of the adult agricultural population (124,702, or 40·90 per cent. of the District population), was 12 acres; the amount of Government land revenue, and local cesses, levied on the landholders, was £20,316; and the amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, was £43,085, or an average of 11d. per cultivated acre. The average rent per acre of

land suited for wheat in 1880–81 was 2s. 6d.; the average produce per acre, 495 lbs. The price averaged 6s. 4d. per cwt. Average wages per diem—skilled labour, 1s; unskilled, 4½d.

Commerce and Trade.—The internal trade of Betúl has but scanty proportions. The single industry of importance is weaving. Of the artisans, the blacksmiths and workers in the precious metals form the most numerous class. Coal exists at various places on the Machná and Tawá rivers; but, except at Ráwandeo on the Tawá, no seam is known to occur exceeding 3 feet in thickness. At present such coal probably could not be worked at a profit. Betúl is better provided with means of communication than any of the Sátpura Hill Districts. Five main roads radiate from Badnúr, running respectively towards Nágpur, Hoshangábád, Mau, Ellichpur, and Chhindwárá. Of these the first and fourth are partially bridged, the second bridged the whole way. In 1881, the total length of made roads was returned at 233 miles, being 2nd class 95, and 3rd class 138. The District has no navigable river, and no railway passes within its limits.

Administration.—By the treaty of 1826, Betúl District was formally incorporated with the British possessions. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with assistants and *tahsíldárs*; it is divided for revenue purposes into 2 *tahsíls* (Multái and Betúl), and for police purposes into the six circles of Multái, Betúl, Atner, Sháhpur, Sáulígarh or Chicholí, and Amla, with 20 outposts. In 1881–82, the land revenue yielded £19,016; excise, £12,748; assessed taxes, £559; forests, £4186; stamps, £3023. Total revenue, £39,532. Under the old Maráthá Government each village had its *pátel* or head-man, who, besides exercising a certain jurisdiction, collected the revenue from the tenants, and paid it into the Government treasuries, after deducting his authorized percentage. This office was generally hereditary; but the exactions of the Maráthá Government in its wars at the beginning of this century drove out the *pátels*, and brought in a swarm of speculators, who farmed the villages for short periods at rack-rents. The villages continually changed hands; several often fell under the control of the same man, and the old *pátel* gave way to the modern *málguzár*. In 1837, however, a light Settlement for 20 years enabled those who then possessed estates to hold on and prosper; and it is on these men or their descendants that the Settlement lately completed has finally conferred proprietary right, subject only to the payment of the Government revenue and to the recognition of such tenant rights as have been recorded. Total cost in 1881–82 of District officials and police of all kinds, £12,228; number of civil and revenue judges within the District, 6; magistrates, 6; maximum distance of any village from the nearest court, 52—average distance, 22 miles; number of police, 346, costing £4204, being 1 policeman to

every 11·3 square miles and to every 881 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1881 was 45, of whom 3 were females. The cost of maintaining and guarding the prisoners in that year was £374. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 26, attended by 1693 pupils. Of the three municipalities in 1881–82, BETUL, with a population of 4693, returned an income of £104, of which £102 was derived from taxation; MULTAI, with a population of 3423, returned an income of £80, of which £78 was derived from taxation; and BADNUR, with a population of 4280, returned an income of £105, of which £102 was derived from taxation. There is no octroi, the only municipal taxes being those levied on houses and lands. Average rate of municipal taxation per head of the population—Betúl, 5¼d.; Multái, 5½d.; Badnúr, 5½d.

Medical Aspects.—During the greater part of the year, Europeans find the climate of Betúl agreeable and not unhealthy. The elevation of the country, and the neighbourhood of extensive forests, temper the great heat of the sun; and even in the hot season the nights are cool and pleasant. Between January and May, showers are not infrequent. Little or no hot wind is felt before the end of April, and even then it ceases after sunset. During the rains, the climate is sometimes cold and raw, thick cloud and mist enveloping the sky for many days together. The plateau on the Hill of Khámlá, in the south-west corner of the District, would afford an agreeable retreat to Europeans during the unhealthy season; but hitherto the scarcity of water has proved an insurmountable obstacle. In 1876, the rainfall at the civil station was 60 inches, but 43 inches may be regarded as the usual fall. Average temperature in the shade at the civil station in 1881—May, highest reading, 107° F., lowest reading, 68°; July, highest reading, 88°, lowest, 69°; December, highest reading, 81°, lowest, 41°. By far the most fatal complaint is fever, to which cause are generally due about 80 per cent. of the deaths throughout the District. Dysentery, also, and other bowel complaints, constantly prove fatal. No fewer than 1346 deaths from cholera were registered in 1876, but only 2 in 1881. [For further information regarding Betúl, see the *Settlement Report* of the District, by W. Ramsay, Esq., Bombay, C.S. (1866). Also the *Gazetteer of the Central Provinces*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S., C.S.I. (second edition, Nágpur, 1870); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the *Administration Reports* for those Provinces from 1880 to 1883.]

Betúl.—Revenue sub-division or *tahsíl* in Betúl District, Central Provinces; lying between 21° 21′ and 22° 21′ N. lat., and between 77° 13′ 15″ and 78° 15′ 45″ E. long. Area, 2944 square miles. Population (1881) 211,737, namely, 107,403 males, and 104,334 females, dwelling

in 862 villages and 40,699 houses; average density of population, 71·22 per square mile; area under cultivation, 985 square miles; amount of Government land revenue, with local rates and cesses, £12,949; rental, including cesses paid by cultivators, £29,689, or 11¼d. per acre of cultivated area.

Betúl.—Town in Betúl District, Central Provinces, and the civil head-quarters before their removal to BADNUR, five miles distant. Lat. 21° 51′ 16″ N., long. 77° 58′ 7″ E. Population (1881) 4693, namely, Hindus, 4332; Muhammadans, 210; Jains, 68; and aboriginal tribes, 83, chiefly belonging to the Kurmí and Maráthá Bráhman castes; mostly agriculturists. Betúl has one school, a police outpost, an old fort, and an English cemetery. Brisk trade in pottery. Betúl was the civil station of the District, before its removal to Badnur.

Betúlpiudangadí (*Vettattapúdiyangadi*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 53′ N., long. 75° 58′ 15″ E. Situated two miles east of the Tirúr railway station. Contains sub-magistrates' and judges' courts, built with the materials of the palace of the Betúlnád (Vettattanád) Rájás, destroyed by Tipú Sultán in 1784.

Betwá.—River in Bundelkhand, Central India Agency. Between lat. 22° 55′ and 25° 55′ 45″ N.; long. 77° 39′ 30″ and 80° 15′ 30″ E. Rises in Bhopál State, 1½ mile south of the large tank at BHOPAL; flows south-east for 20 miles to Satapur, there takes a north-east course for 35 miles, crossing into Gwalior State, through which it proceeds in the same direction for 115 miles; thence enters Lálitpur District, forming the boundary between British territory and Gwalior; passes into Jhánsi, and through Hamírpur District, and finally falls into the Jumna about 3 miles below the town of Hamírpur. Total length, 360 miles. Chief tributaries, the Jamni, Dhasán, Koláhu, Páwan, and Barman. In the earlier part of its course it drains the Vindhyan Hills over a bed of sandstone; below Jhánsi, it flows upon a channel of granite; and 16 miles lower down arrives at the alluvial basin of the Jumna valley, through which it passes till it reaches the point of junction near Hamírpur. Above Jhánsi, the river presents a wild and picturesque appearance; and veins of quartz lying across its bed form barriers over which break several beautiful cascades. It is nowhere navigable, and of little use for irrigation; rises and falls rapidly; dry during hot weather in upper portion of its channel. Ordinary flood discharge, 200,000 cubic feet per second; in high floods, 500,000 cubic feet per second. The Betwá is crossed in various parts of its course by the high roads from Nimach (Neemuch), Cawnpur, and Gúna (Goona) to Ságar (Saugor), from Jhánsi to Nándgáon, and from Bánda to Kálpi. Crossings dangerous, and often impracticable. A canal for irrigating Jhánsi District is now (1883) under construction, and a weir is being thrown across the Betwá, about 15 miles from Jhánsi town.

Beypur (*Beypore, Vaypura, Vada Perapanád;* named by Tipú, '*Sultánpatnam*').—Small town and port on the coast of Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 10′ N., long. 75° 50′ 30″ E.; houses, 926; population (1881) 6739, namely, 5461 Hindus, 1264 Muhammadans, and 14 Christians. Situated near the mouth of the Beypur river, 6 miles south of Calicut. Although many attempts have been made to utilize the natural advantages of its maritime position, it was not until 1858, when Beypur was made a terminus of the Madras Railway, that the place became important. The Portuguese established a factory (Kalyán) here, but it failed. Tipú (*see* FEROKH) selected it as the site of the capital of Malabár, but hardly a vestige of its shortlived importance has survived. In 1797 sawmills, in 1805 a canvas factory, in 1848 ironworks, and still later, shipbuilding works were started at Beypur; but all from one cause or another have failed. In 1858, however, the railway gave the place its present importance. Being now a regular port for steamers, it possesses a custom-house. All the coffee of the Ochterlony valley, with much from the South-East Wainád, comes to Beypur for export. Rice forms the staple of the import trade. The bar admits craft of 300 tons to the river, and at low spring tides gives soundings of 12 to 14 feet. Iron ore and a sort of lignite both exist in the immediate vicinity of the town, and wood in great abundance. The teak grown on the Gháts to the east is floated down to Beypur for exportation. A few miles from the town lies the site of FEROKH, and 5 miles east is Chátaparamba ('Field of Death'), remarkable for its ancient stone circles and monuments (*see Trans. Lin. Soc.*, Bombay, vol. iii. p. 324), resembling the cromlechs of Salem and Coimbatore, and called by the natives *kuda-kallu* or 'umbrella stones.' Beypore, being neither a civil nor military station, has no administrative offices. Imports (1880-81), £29,049, exports, £388,903. For details of trade returns, *see* CALICUT.

Beypur (*Beypore, Pauna-puya*, 'Gold River').—River in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Rises in the hills south of the Neddivattam Pass. After draining the Ochterlony valley, it descends by a series of cataracts over the Gháts north of the Kárkúr Pass. The scenery in this part of its course, owing to the precipitous and densely wooded banks, the boulder-strewn channel, and numerous waterfalls, is picturesque and wild. After reaching the low country the river receives many affluents; the chief being the Karím-puyá—where a massive timber bridge spans the joint stream. Then flowing gently past Arikkod, it joins the Kodiatúr. It debouches into the sea at Beypur, being joined near its mouth by the Kadalvandi, with which it forms the island of Cháliyam, containing the terminus of the Madras Railway, south-west line. The Beypur river is navigable for large boats all the year round as high as Arikkod, and during the rains much farther.

The bar at its mouth has always at least 12 feet of water over it, and at high tides from 16 to 18 feet.

Beyt.—Island in the Gulf of Kachchh (Cutch), Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 25′ and 22° 29′ N. lat., and between 69° 8′ and 69° 12′ E. long. It is a narrow and crooked strip of land, so that although it measures in a direct line from north-east to south-west 5 miles, its actual length is half as much again. The south-western half consists of a rocky table-land, about 50 or 60 feet high. The east end, 3 miles to the west of Paga sand, is called Hanumán Point, after a temple of that name, situated about half a mile within the point. Fort flagstaff, lat. 22° 27′ 30″ N., long. 69° 5′ E. Temples in honour of Krishna abound. The population consists principally of Bráhmans, supported by the offerings of pilgrims, with whom Beyt is a favourite place of resort. When the island was taken from the Wághirs by a British force in 1859, its fort and principal temples were blown up.

Bezwáda (*Bejaváda*).—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 534 square miles, containing 4 towns and 107 villages. Houses, 14,393. Land revenue, £15,709. Population (1881) 82,895, namely, 41,778 males and 41,117 females. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 7 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 60 men. Chief town, Bezwáda.

Bezwáda (*Bejaváda*).—Town in the Bezwáda *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 30′ 50″ N., long. 80° 39′ E.; population (1881) 9336; houses, 1202. Hindus number 7605; Muhammadans, 1584; Christians, 145; and 'others,' 2. Situated on the Kistna river (here crossed by the most frequented ferry of the District), at the junction of the high roads from Madras to Calcutta, and from Haidarábád to the coast, 20 miles north-east from Gantúr (Guntoor). Being also the *entrepôt* for most of the canal traffic of the Kistna delta, and connected by good water-ways with Madras, Ellore, Masúlipatam, Coconáda, and Rájáhmándrí, the town possesses a considerable internal trade. A fort erected here by the East India Company in 1760, was dismantled in 1820. Bezwáda possesses much interest for the archæologist, being by some identified with the Dhanákaketa of Hwen Thsang, and containing rock-cut temples of the Buddhist period, as well as very ancient Hindu pagodas. The hill to the west is (like several others) pointed out as the site of the legendary fight between Arjún and Indra. During the excavations for the canals and the anicut (which here crosses the Kistna), many valuable antiquarian discoveries were made. Bezwáda is the head-quarters of the Head Assistant Collector of the Kistna District of the *tahsíldár* of the *táluk*, and of the superintending, District, and assistant engineers of the Public Works Department. It has a post-office, telegraph office, munsif's court, dispensary, circuit bungalow, jail, and library.

Bhábhar.—State and town, Pálanpur Agency, Bombay Presidency. —*See* BABHAR.

Bhabuá.—Sub-division of Sháhábád District, Bengal, lying between 24° 40′ 15″ and 25° 24′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 21′ 30″ and 83° 56′ E. long.; area, 1301 square miles; number of villages, 1388; number of occupied houses, 49,316; population (1881) 322,236, namely, 296,385 Hindus and 25,851 Muhammadans; average density of population, 248 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·07; houses per square mile, 44; persons per village, 246; persons per house, 6·5. The Sub-division was formed in 1865, and comprises the three *thánás* (police circles) of Bhabuá, with Chánd and Mohania. It contains 1 criminal court. Strength of regular police, 77 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 1330.

Bhabuá.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal, and head-quarters of the Bhabuá Sub-division. Lat. 25° 2′ 30″ N., long. 83° 39′ 35″ E. Population in 1872, 5071; in 1881, 5728, namely, 4463 Hindus and 1265 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 853 acres. A second-class municipality, with an income (1881) of £180; expenditure, £151. Head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*).

Bháchav. — Town in Kachchh (Cutch) Native State, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 3116.

Bhadársa.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh, on the banks of the Marhá river, 10 miles south of Faizábád town, on the road to Sultánpur. Ráma is said to have met his brother Bharata at this place, and its name is derived from *bhayádarsa*—'the meeting of the brothers.' Population (1881), Hindus, 2821, and Musalmáns, 1914—total, 4735. Six Muhammadan mosques. Hindu religious fair at Bharatakund, attended by about 5000 persons.

Bhadárwa.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 27 square miles; estimated revenue (1882) £4000, of which a tribute of £1907 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Population (1881) 9185, or 340·18 per square mile. The State has one school, with an average attendance of 119 pupils. The chief holds the title of Ráná. Police force, 24 men.

Bhadaur. — Town in Anahadgarh *tahsíl*, Patiála State, Punjab. Population (1881) 6912, namely, Sikhs, 2670; Hindus, 2081; Muhammadans, 2050; Jains, 111. Number of occupied houses, 996.

Bhadaurá.—Petty State under the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency in Gwalior territory, Central India. It arose from a grant by Sindhia in 1820 to Mán Singh, the ancestor of the present holder, on condition of his putting down a notorious robber and preventing theft. The grant is situated on the Agra road, 12 miles north of Gúna, and contains 10 villages, with a population (1881) of 3365. The lands of five of the villages are held at a quit-rent, yielding an annual income of £230,

half of which the chief keeps for himself, the other half being paid to Sindhia. The chief holds the title of Thákur; his annual income is estimated at £700. The present chief, Mádho Singh, is a minor; during his minority the affairs of the State are carried on through a *Kámdár*, under the superintendence of the Political Assistant at Gúna. Chief town, Bhadaurá. Lat. 24° 47′ N., long. 77° 28′ E.

Bhádbhút.—Village and place of pilgrimage in the Broach Sub-division, Broach District, Bombay Presidency; on the north bank of the Narbadá, and about 8 miles from Broach city. A fair is held in honour of Mahádeo, under the name of Bhádeshwar, during August–September, and lasts through the entire intercalary month, an event which happens once in every nineteen or twenty years. On the last occasion, in 1871, the fair began on the 17th August and went on till the 14th September, and was attended by 60,000 people. The ceremonies at Bhádbhut are of a special nature. They do not form part of a course of pilgrimages, and at the close of the holy month the pilgrims return to their homes. There is a small temple here, which receives a yearly grant from Government of 18s.

Bhadgáon.—Town in the Páchura Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 38′ 30″ N., long. 75° 16′ E. Situated on the left bank of the Girná river, 48 miles east of Málegáon, and 34 miles south-east of Dhúliá. Population (1881) 6537, namely, Hindus, 5146; Muhammadans, 1245; Jains, 26; and 'others,' 120; area of town site, 91 acres. Municipal revenue (1880–81) £226; rate of taxation, 8¼d. per head of population; municipal expenditure in the same year, £234. Bhadgáon has a sub-judge's court, a dispensary, and a post-office, Government school, travellers' rest-house, and is the head-quarters station of a revenue officer and a police officer. In the neighbourhood are the Government model farm and the Jamdhá irrigation canal. Local trade in cotton, indigo, and linseed. The town suffered greatly from flood in September 1872, when about 750 houses were washed away.

Bhadli.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 15 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. Revenue, £2600; total tribute, £136, of which £110, 8s. is paid to the British Government, and £25, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Chief village, Bhadli. Lat. 22° 1′ N., long. 71° 35′ E.

Bhadorá.—State under the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency, Gwalior territory, Central India.—*See* BHADAURA.

Bhadrá.—River in Mysore State, which unites with its twin stream, the Tunga, to form the Tungabhadrá. Lat. 13° 10′ to 14° N., long. 75° 10′ to 75° 40′ E. It rises in Kadur District, beneath the peak of Gangá múlá in the Western Gháts, not far from the sources of the Tunga, and after flowing in a north-easterly direction across that

District, joins the Tunga at Kudáli in the adjoining District of Shimoga. For the most part it runs between steep banks and amid dense forests, and its waters are little used for irrigation. There are 18 dams, from which 325 acres are supplied with water; at Benkipur it is crossed by a bridge. According to the Puránic legend, given under TUNGABHADRA, the Bhadrá was formed by the right tusk of the boar *avatár* of Vishnu.

Bhadrá.—*Zamíndárí* or chiefship in the Burhá *tahsíl*, Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Lat. (centre) 21° 25′ N., long. 80° 33′ 30″ E. Area, 128 square miles, of which 34 are cultivated; number of villages, 62; occupied houses, 3911; population (1881) 18,855, namely, 9223 males and 9632 females; average density of population, 147 per square mile. The estate was given by the Subadár of Lanjí, at the end of the last century, in *zamíndárí* tenure to Zain-ud-dín Khán, Pathán, whose family still retains possession of it. The residence of the chief is in Belá village.

Bhadráchalam.—*Táluk* and estate in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency, lying between 17° 35′ 45″ and 17° 56′ 30″ N. lat., and 80° 54′ 30″ and 81° 8′ E. long. Contains 313 villages, half of which belong to an old proprietary estate, with 35,656 inhabitants, chiefly Koyas. Annual revenue about £764. This *táluk*, with that of REKAPALLI, was transferred from the Central Provinces to Madras in 1874; and the Rampa country from the *táluk* of Rajamahendri (Rájáhmundry) being added, the whole was formed into an Agency under the Godávarí Collector. Until 1860, this tract formed part of the Upper Godávarí District ceded in that year by the Nizám. Area, with Rekapalli, 911 square miles.

Bhadráchalam.—Chief town of *táluk* of same name in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 41′ N., long. 81° E.; houses, 389; population (1881) 1901, mostly Bráhmans and Telingas. Built on the Godávarí river, which is here very deep and rapid. About 104 miles from Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), and 15 from Dumágudiem. Consists of one long and narrow street, and receives its name from being near the rock on which Bhadrádu performed his devotions. Celebrated for the temple of Rámachandra, who is said to have crossed the river at this spot, on his famous expedition to the island of Ceylon, and also for the annual fair held here in his honour. This temple was built four centuries ago by Rishi Pratíshtha, but additions have been made from time to time. It consists of a main building with a fine dome, flanked by 24 smaller temples on both sides. It is surrounded by a high wall, and may be ascended by steps from near the bank of the Godávarí. The sacred jewels are said to be of great value. The Nizám annually contributes £1300 towards the maintenance of the temple. Twenty miles from Bhadráchalam is Parnesala, another shrine

of great antiquity. There is a town school, court-houses, jail, post-office, treasury, and a police station; the District post from Dumágudiem to Rájámandri passes through the town. About 20,000 people, chiefly from the coast, attend the fair, held every April, when English and country cloth, sugar, opium, spices, hardware, etc., change hands to the value of about £5000.

Bhadrakh.—Sub-division of Balasor District, Bengal, lying between 20° 44′ and 21° 15′ N. lat., and between 86° 18′ 40″ and 87° E. long.; area, 909 square miles; number of villages, 3009; number of occupied houses, 72,230; population (1881) 425,573, namely, 414,417 Hindus (97·3 per cent. of the population), 10,978 Muhammadans, 66 Christians, and 52 'others;' number of males, 203,404, or 47·7 per cent. of the population—females, 222,169; average density of population, 469 per square mile; villages per square mile, 3·3; houses per square mile, 82·8; persons per village, 140; persons per house, 5·9. The Sub-division was formed in 1847, and comprises the *thánás* (police circles) of Bhadrakh, Basudebpur, Dharmnagar, and Chándbáli. In 1883, it contained 4 magisterial courts, and a total police force of 1011 men, of whom 895 belonged to the village watch (*chaukídárs* and *páiks*).

Bhadrakh. — Head-quarters town of the Bhadrakh Sub-division, Balasor District, Bengal; situated on the high road between Calcutta and Cuttack. Lat. 21° 3′ 10″ N., long. 86° 33′ 25″ E.; estimated population (1870), 7801. Not separately shown as a town in the Census Returns of 1872 or 1881.

Bhadreswar (or *Bhadravatí*).—Site of an ancient city, now a petty village, in the south-east of Kachchh (Cutch), Bombay Presidency. Most of the architectural remains have been removed for building-stone; but the place is still interesting for its Jain temple, for the pillars and part of the dome of a Sivaite shrine with an interesting *wáv* or well, and two mosques, one of the latter almost buried by drifting sand from the shore. A very ancient seat of Buddhist worship; but the earliest ruins now existing belong to temples erected subsequent to 1125 A.D., when one Jagadeva Sáh, a merchant who had made a fortune as a grain dealer in a time of famine, received a grant of Bhadreswar, and in repairing the temple 'removed all traces of antiquity.' The temple was a celebrated place of pilgrimage in the 12th and 13th centuries. At the close of the 17th century, the temple was plundered by the Muhammadans, and many of the images of the Jain Tirthankars were broken. Since then it has been neglected, and having fallen into ruins, the temple stones, and those of the old city fort, were used for the building of the seaport town of Munra or Mundra. Described by Mr. Burgess in his *Archæological Survey of Western India.*

Bhadreswar.—Town in Húglí District, Bengal, situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, and a station on the East Indian Railway.

Lat. 22° 49′ 50″ N., long. 88° 23′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 9246, namely, 8671 Hindus, 547 Muhammadans, and 28 'others.' Area of town site, 1920 acres. Municipal income in 1881, £542; expenditure, £544. One of the chief trading places in Húglí District. Principal staples—rice, paddy, oil-seeds, salt, pulses, and piece-goods.

Bhadrí.—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh, on the road from Bihár to Mankapur, 28 miles from Allahábád. Population (1881) 1255, namely, Hindus, 1163, and Muhammadans, 92. Hindu temple; village school; ruined fort.

Bhádron.—Town in Gujarát (Guzerát), within the limits of Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 21′ 30″ N., long. 72° 56′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 4718. Head-quarters of the Sisva petty sub-division. The cultivation of tobacco is the chief agricultural occupation, and there is a fair trade in grain. Vernacular school and two *dharmsálás*.

Bhadwa.—Petty State in Hallár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 4 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Revenue, £1100; total tribute, £163, of which £139 is paid to the British Government, and £24 to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Chief village, Bhagwa; lat. 22° 5′ N., long. 70° 57′ E.

Bhadwáná.—Petty State in Jháláwár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £554; total tribute, £108, of which £100 is paid to the British Government, and £8, 6s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bhága.—Mountain river in the head-quarters Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjáb (lat. 32° 33′ 15″ to 32° 45′ 30″ N., long. 77° 1′ to 77° 26′ 15″ E.), and one of the head-waters of the Chenáb; rises among the snow-beds on the north-west slopes of the Bará Láchá Pass; flows for 30 miles through wild and rocky uninhabited hills, hemmed in by broken cliffs; then reaches a fertile cultivated valley, with large arable tracts intervening between the channel and the mountains; passes Kailang, the chief village of Láhul, and finally joins the CHANDRA about 5 miles farther down, at Tandí. The united stream thenceforward bears the name of CHENAB. Total length, 65 miles; average fall, 125 feet per mile.

Bhagabatípur.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 42′ N., long. 88° 5′ 30″ E.

Bhágalpur.—A Division or Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 23° 45′ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 85° 40′ and 88° 35′ E. long. It comprises the Districts of BHAGALPUR, the SANTAL PARGANAS, MALDAH, MONGHYR, and PURNIAH —all of which see separately. Bounded on the north by the independent State of Nepál, and Dárjíling District; on the east by the Districts of Jalpáigurí, Dinájpur, and Rájsháhí; on the south by the Districts of Murshidábád, Bírbhúm, Bardwán, and Mánbhúm; and on

the west by Hazáríbágh, Gayá, Patná, and Darbhangah Districts. Area, 20,942 square miles; number of towns and villages, 32,816; number of houses, 1,316,357, of which 1,279,363 are occupied; population (1881) 8,063,160, namely, 5,841,599 Hindus, 1,582,604 Muhammadans, 5079 Christians, 132 Buddhists, 54 Sikhs, 3 Brahmos, 2 Jains, 36 Jews, and 633,846 'others,' chiefly aboriginal tribes. The principal aboriginal tribes not yet influenced by Hinduism consist of 559,602 Santáls, nearly all of whom are found in the Santál Parganás, and 11,995 Kols. Of the aboriginal tribes professing Hinduism, the chief are—Kochs, 132,632, nearly all in Purniah and Maldah Districts; Bhuiyás, 79,939, nearly all in the Santál Parganás and Bhágalpur; Kharwárs, 20,029, in Bhágalpur, Maldah, and Purniah; Santáls, 10,023; Bhumijs, 3880, all in the Santál Parganás; Kols, 3481; Gonds, 1573. Of the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 211,609; Rájputs, 198,251; Bábhans, 234,794; and Káyasths, 70,091. The Baniyá or trading caste numbers 150,658. Of the lower or Súdra castes, the most important from a numerical point of view are—Gwálá, the most numerous caste in the Division, 798,494; Dhánuk, 273,408; Nuniyá, 256,189; Musahár, 252,857; Dosádh, 223,269; Koerí, 215,277; Telí, 195,705; Chamár, 192,273; Nápit, 121,015; Kumhár, 111,525; Kahár, 111,138; Kúrmí, 108,633; Tántí, 107,293; Kandu, 104,538; Tátwa, 93,080; Kaibartta, 78,733; Dom, 73,790; Dhobí, 68,770; Lohár, 66,608; Mallah, 63,910; Madak, 62,476; Sunrí, 60,864; Barhai, 59,854; Keut, 58,171; Tior, 57,676; Hari, 57,036; Ghátwál, 54,601; Kalwár, 52,987; Sonár, 49,565; Bind, 31,204; Baruí, 29,022; Pásí, 25,685; and Mal, 21,395. The caste-rejecting Hindus numbered 36,025, of whom 24,849 were Vaishnavs. Of the Muhammadans, 1,417,504 were returned as Sunnís, 30,457 as Shiás, while 134,643 were unspecified. Of the Christian community, 811 were returned as Europeans, 651 as Eurasians, 3391 as natives of India, and 298 as 'others.' According to religion, Church of England, 776; Roman Catholics, 374; Presbyterians, 601; Baptists, 311; the remainder being indefinite or unspecified. Bhágalpur Division contains 16 municipal towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, the aggregate town population being 239,864, leaving 7,823,296 for the rural population. Of the 32,816 towns and villages in the Division, no less than 20,689 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 8267 had from two to five hundred; 2879 from five hundred to a thousand; 843 had from one to two thousand; 97 from two to three thousand; 21 from three to five thousand; 13 from five to ten thousand; 4 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 2 upwards of fifty thousand. As regards occupation, the male population is divided into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including all civil and military officers and Government officials,

together with the learned professions, 36,574; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 168,907; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 143,545; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 1,469,154; (5) industrial, including all manufacturers and artisans, 1,980,282; (6) indefinite and non-productive, including general labourers, male children, and unspecified, 1,980,282. The total revenue of Bhágalpur Division in 1882–83 amounted to £595,625, of which the Government land revenue assessment yielded £322,946, the other principal items being excise, stamps, and registration.

Bhágalpur.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 34′ and 26° 35′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 25′ and 87″ 33′ 30″ E. long.; area, 4268 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,966,158 persons. It is bounded on the north by the Independent State of Nepál; on the east, north of the Ganges, by the District of Purniah; on the south and on the east, south of the Ganges, by the Santál Parganás; and on the west by the Districts of Darbhangah and Monghyr. The administrative headquarters are at BHAGALPUR, on the right or south bank of the Ganges.

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the Ganges. The northern division forms a continuation of the great alluvial plain of Tirhút, being intersected by many rivers, which are connected with each other by innumerable *dhárs* or water-courses; the southern and eastern portions of this tract are liable to inundation by the flooding of these rivers, and by the overflow of the Ganges on its northern bank. The north-eastern portion of the District, formerly one of the most fertile regions in the sub-Tarái rice tract, has been completely devastated by changes in the course of the river Kúsí; the country has been laid under a deep layer of sand, and the once fertile soil is covered with high grass jungle, which gives shelter to tigers, buffaloes, and rhinoceros. On the south of the Ganges, for some distance, the country is low, bare, and, except in the cold weather, almost entirely uncultivated. Farther south, the land rises a few feet; the soil is rich, and covered with rice and other crops; mango and palm groves abound, and numerous villages dot the plain. About twenty miles south of Bhágalpur town, the country begins to wear a different aspect, the land rises by an easy ascent, and the hilly country commences. The soil being less deep than to the northward, and lying upon rocks of primitive formation, the water is nearer the surface, and the trees attain an enormous growth, far beyond what is found on the deep alluvial plains of the Ganges. The *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia), now becomes common, palms almost cease to be seen, the mangoes are no longer found in planted groves, but are scattered about in small groups; the cotton tree attains a great size, and

patches of *dhák* jungle appear. The fields of wheat and gram, instead of being neat and regular plots, form shapeless and irregular large spaces of ground; and the villages become scattered. This part of the country has been but recently reclaimed from jungle.

The river system of the District consists of a reach of the Ganges about 60 miles in length, with numerous Himálayan affluents on its north bank; and on the south a few hill streams, which during the greater part of the year are sandy water-courses, but in the rains become rivers of considerable size, although unnavigable from their rapidity, and the uncertainty of the duration of their floods. The northern rivers have mostly a direction from north to south, with a slight inclination eastwards. The larger of these rise amongst the Nepál outliers of the Himálayas, and fall, after a more or less tortuous course, into the Ghúgrí, which itself joins the Kúsí in the extreme east of Bhágalpur, about six miles above the confluence of that river with the Ganges, opposite Colgong. The most important of these secondary, northern rivers, are the Tiljúgá, Batí, Dimrá, Talabá, Parwán, Kúsí, Dhusán, Chalauní, Loran, Katná, Daus, and Ghúgrí. South of the Ganges, the only stream worthy of separate notice is the Chándan, the floods from which, although partially restrained by embankments, sometimes inundate the country for miles around, and cause great injury to the crops. The larger rivers are navigable throughout the year by boats of the heaviest burden, and the minor streams by smaller craft during the rainy season. Very marked changes have taken place in the courses of the two most important of the rivers—the Ganges and the Kúsí. The stream of the Ganges in 1864 ran directly below the town of Bhágalpur, and steamers anchored close under the houses of the residents; a few years earlier the river flowed equally near the northern bank, formed by *parganá* Chhái: its present course is between these limits. The channel of the Kúsí seems to have been advancing steadily westward for many centuries; the large trading village of Náthpur, which in 1850 lay some miles to the west of the river, has not only been swept away, but its site has been left many miles to the eastward.

There is no sheet of water in Bhágalpur of sufficient size or depth to be called a lake. Shallow marshes, however, are numerous. Considerable tracts of land on the south of the Ganges are inundated every year, which as they dry up are cultivated in the cold weather with abundant crops of wheat and Indian corn. The forests comprise two small areas of about 40 and 30 square miles respectively in the southern hilly country. In the north of the District there are in parts much low scrub jungle, interspersed with large trees. The *tasar* silk-worm is reared by the castes along the hill frontier, and forms an important forest industry. The principal mineral product is galena, found in

places in large quantities, and much of which is argentiferous. Sulphuret of antimony is also found. Copper exists in the southern hills in various forms. Iron ore is also largely distributed, but is not much worked, owing to the difficulties in the way of procuring sufficient fuel, and a good flux.

History.—When the East India Company assumed the *díwání* of Bengal (1765), Bhágalpur District formed the eastern part of the Muhammadan *sarkár* of Monghyr, and lay, with the exception of a single *parganá* (Chhái), to the south of the Ganges. At that time, the country to the south and west was in such an unsettled state, owing to the inroads of the hill tribes, that the exact boundaries of Bhágalpur in those directions cannot now be determined; and it was not until 1774 that an officer was specially deputed to ascertain the limits of the District. Down to 1769, the revenue and criminal jurisdiction continued in native hands. At the end of that year, an English Supervisor was appointed, who lived at Rájmahál, and whose duties were 'to obtain a summary history of the provinces, the state, produce, and capacity of the lands, the amount of the revenues, the cesses or arbitrary taxes, and of all demands whatsoever which are made on the cultivators, the manner of collecting them, and the gradual rise of every new import, the regulations of commerce and the administration of justice.' He did not, however, actually supervise the collections. In 1772, when the Company determined to take the management of the revenue into its own hands, it was found that, during the previous seven years, more than £50,000 of the land revenue had been embezzled annually. Measures were at once taken to place the collections on a satisfactory footing; the *zamíndárs* were ordered to live on their estates and attend to the collection of their rents, and were imprisoned if they fell into arrears. The next point to which the attention of the Collector was turned was the administration of criminal justice. The southern portion of the District, as has been stated, was subject to constant inroads from hill tribes. The ravages of these marauders became more and more serious. In December 1777 and January 1778, forty-four villages were plundered and burnt, and in May of the latter year the hillmen had become so daring that some of the Collector's tents were carried off within a few miles of the civil station of Bhágalpur. Large gangs of plunderers traversed the District, and life was as insecure as property. It had become a matter of supreme importance to pacify these hill tribes. Mr. Cleveland, who was then Collector of the District, set himself earnestly to the task, and, in conjunction with Captain James Browne, of Rájmahál, originated and carried out a scheme which resulted in the arrangement of 1780 and the pensioning of the hill chiefs. The history of these proceedings will be found in the article on the SANTAL PARGANAS. From this date, the District

entered upon a new phase of its history. The ravages of the hillmen did not at once cease; but the prompt measures with which each renewed attempt at disturbance was met eventually succeeded in producing the desired impression, and before the end of last century the country was finally freed from the inroads of the marauders. The prosperity of the District has gradually increased during the present century. Cultivation has spread; trade is flourishing; education is being rapidly extended; the people are prosperous; and property and person are safe.

There have been many changes of jurisdiction in the District, and it has little by little lost the character of a South Gangetic tract, which it possessed when it came into our hands; in 1864, 700 square miles of country on the north of the river were added to it. A further transfer was made in 1874, when Kharakpur *parganá* was separated from Bhágalpur and attached to Monghyr District. The various jurisdictions are now all conterminous.

Population.—The population of Bhágalpur was returned by the Census of 1872 (allowing for transfers since that date) at 1,824,738. The Census of 1881 disclosed a population of 1,966,158, being an increase of 141,420, or 7·75 per cent. in the nine years. Area of District, 4268 square miles; number of towns and villages, 6177; number of houses, 331,787, of which 321,469 were occupied, and 10,318 unoccupied; average density of population, 460·67 per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·45; houses per square mile, 77·74; inhabitants per occupied house, 6·12. Divided according to sex, males number 979,119, and females 987,039; proportion of males to total population, 49·8 per cent. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 1,764,304, or 89·74 per cent.; Muhammadans, 185,533, or 9·44 per cent.; Christians, 578; Jews, 11; and 'others' (hill tribes professing aboriginal beliefs), 15,732, or ·80 per cent. This does not, however, include all the aboriginal population, many of whom now profess some form of Hinduism, and are ranked as low-caste Hindus. The Census Report returns the aboriginal tribes professing Hinduism at 31,534; the principal being Bhuiyás, 17,904; and Bhumijs, 8977. The aboriginal tribes still outside Hindu influences, are the Santáls, 13,384; and Kols, 2322. The high-caste Hindus include—Bráhmans, 71,420; Rájputs, 60,491; Bábhans, an inferior caste of Bráhmans, 42,351; Káyasths, 21,810; and Baniyás, 35,173. The lower castes of Hindus include—Gwálá, 343,830, the most numerous caste in the District; Dhánuk, 101,665; Koerí, 82,302; Kúrmí, 38,363; Madak, 22,312; Kandu, 34,724; Kumhár, 36,319; Tatwá, 42,609; Tántí, 22,066; Nápit, 33,927; Kahár, 28,902; Dhobí, 23,144; Telí, 66,946; Kalwár, 26,303; Keut, 35,516; Chamár, 76,407; Dosádh, 70,863; Dom, 17,124; Ghátwál, 11,989; Lohár, 15,284; Mallah, 18,915;

Musahár, 79,584; Sonár, 16,914; Sunrí, 12,107, etc. The Muhammadans are classified according to sect into—Sunnís, 141,151; Shiás, 3318; and unspecified, 41,064. Of the 578 Christians, 323 are natives, 154 Europeans, 46 Eurasians, and 55 unspecified.

Division of the People into Town and Country; Occupations, etc.—The population of the District is entirely rural, and there are only two municipal towns containing more than five thousand inhabitants—namely, BHAGALPUR (population, 68,238) and COLGONG (population, 5672). SONBARSA, which, however, is not a municipality, has a population of 5237. The villages and towns are classified as follows:—3210 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1868, from two to five hundred; 797, from five hundred to a thousand; 258, from one to two thousand; 35, from two to three thousand; 6, from three to five thousand; 2, from five thousand to ten thousand; and 1, upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. The male population is classified according to occupation into the following six main divisions—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 6319; (2) domestic servants, etc., 42,602; (3) commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 35,404; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 362,360; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 51,829; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 123,453 general labourers, and 357,152 unspecified, including children), 480,605. The inhabitants of the District, as a whole, are fairly happy and contented, and the smaller cultivators are said to be better off than their brethren of the lower delta. A peasant, with a small holding of 5 acres of land, although he would not be so well off as an ordinary retail shopkeeper, would be able to live quite as well as a man with a monthy income of Rs. 8 or 16s. The cultivators of Bhágalpur generally are much less in debt to the *mahájans* or grain merchants than is the same class in Bengal. In the south of the District there is very little debt.

Demon-worship.—A peculiar feature of the District is the prevalence of demon-worship, especially of a Bráhman-demon, Dube Bhairan by name. In Bhágalpur District every village has its own demon, who is propitiated by offerings made at the foot of a tree where he is supposed to reside. A belief in demons or ghosts is almost as prevalent in Bengal proper as in Bhágalpur; but in Bengal if the demons cause annoyance, the gods are invoked or exorcisms are practised to expel them; while in Bhágalpur they are propitiated by presents, and their blessings asked in cases of difficulty or danger. Demon-worship is not prevalent throughout Behar; and the few Districts in which it exists are those bordering on tracts inhabited by aboriginal tribes, such as Kols and Santáls.

Antiquities. — Near the town of Bhágalpur are two interesting Muhammadan shrines, and in the western suburb the Jain sect of Oswáls have two curious places of worship. The only other objects of special interest in Bhágalpur are the Karnágarh Hill or Plateau, which formerly contained the lines of the Hill Rangers (embodied by Mr. Cleveland, the Collector, about 1780), but now occupied by a Native regiment; and the monument erected to that gentleman by the Directors of the E. I. Company. COLGONG (Kahalgáon) was, until quite recently, a place of commercial importance, being on the main stream of the Ganges; but the river has since receded, and a large number of traders have left the place in consequence. Mahmúd Sháh, the last independent king of Bengal, died here. Umárpur, Khandaulí, Baluá, and Sultánganj are considerable trading villages; the last mentioned is situated on the bank of the Ganges, and is conspicuous for two large rocks of granite, on the top of one of which is a Muhammadan mosque, while the other is crowned by a Hindu temple, dedicated to Siva. The little village of Singheswarthán is the scene of a frequented elephant fair. But the most interesting place in the District is MANDARGIRI, the sacred hill, which is fabled to cover the body of the giant who attempted to destroy Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. Vishnu struck off the monster's head, and in order to prevent the headless trunk from rising and shaking off the weight which covers it, the god keeps his foot ever on the hill, which is, in consequence, a spot of the greatest sanctity in Hindu mythology. It is a huge mass of granite, 700 feet high, and bare, save near the summit and on one side, where it is overgrown with low jungle. Coiling round the hill, the figure of a great serpent has been cut in relief; one of the legends connected with Mandar being that it was the hill used by the gods and Asurs to churn the ocean. Besides being a favourite place of pilgrimage, Mandar Hill possesses great interest for the antiquary, and abounds with remarkable ruins, and natural and artificial curiosities. A detailed account of these will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 95–102. Ruins of old forts, and of temples dating back to Buddhist times, are found in various parts of the District.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in the District is rice, but this staple does not bear the same relative importance in Bhágalpur as in most other Districts of Bengal. The rice produced is for the most part exported. The *bhadaí* or early crop is sown in May and reaped in August; the *aghaní* rice is also sown in May, but reaped in December and January. Among the other crops grown in the District are wheat, Indian corn, several kinds of millet, peas, oil-seeds, and indigo. Indian corn forms the staple food of the poor of Bhágalpur; it is sown in April or May, and ripens in August. When grown on

high land this crop requires irrigation. The out-turn varies from 11 to 18 cwts. per acre. Indigo, which covers about 10,000 acres in the District, is sown in October and cut in the beginning of the rainy season. The area under *aghaní* rice in Bhágalpur is estimated at 1,137,100 acres, and that under *bhadaí* crops, including Indian corn, at 552,260 acres. Wages have increased considerably since the opening of the E. I. Railway. Coolies now get 2¼d. (women, 1⅞d.) a day; formerly their pay was 1⅛d. to 1½d. Smiths and carpenters, who formerly got 2¼d. to 2⅝d., now receive 3¾d.; bricklayers get 6d. a day, or double their former wages. Agricultural day-labourers are paid in kind, generally receiving only a day's food in return for the day's work. The price of the best cleaned rice varies from about 4s. 8d. to 7s. 6d. a cwt.; common rice from 2s. 9d. to 4s. 8d.; wheat from 4s. 5d. to 5s. 10d.; and Indian corn from 2s. 2d. to 3s. 6d. per cwt. The greater portion of Bhágalpur consists of permanently settled estates, and there are few intermediate permanent rights between the *zamíndár* and the cultivator. *Zamíndárís* are generally let on short leases to farmers, who try to make as much as they can during their term, and never attempt to improve the condition of the tenantry or the land. The peasantry are said to be not much in debt to the *mahájans* or village money-lenders. The District contained in 1875, 4364 revenue-paying tenures held direct under Government; 3004 intermediate tenures; 7876 *lákhiráj* (revenue-free) and 1618 service tenures. Among the last are more than 200 held by *ghátwáls*; the nature of these *ghátwálí* holdings is explained in the article on BANKURA DISTRICT. Rents vary greatly according to the nature of the soil and the position of the land. In the north, the rates are generally low, except in *parganá* Nárídigar, which is exceedingly fertile. The lowest rates of all are to be found in the neighbourhood of the river Kúsí, which is always changing its course.

Natural Calamities.—Bhágalpur has suffered from time to time from scarcity, and there are records of famines in 1770, 1775, 1779, and 1783. Between 1783 and 1865–66, the year of the great Orissa famine, the District seems to have been free from this scourge. In the famine of 1866, Bhágalpur suffered considerably, and the price of rice rose to 12s. 9½d. per cwt. The highest average daily number of persons relieved gratuitously was 1108, and the largest average number employed on relief work during any month was about 700. There was a good deal of sickness, but no epidemic prevailed. In 1874, when the District was again threatened with famine, measures were taken on an extensive scale to avert such a calamity. The expenditure incurred in dealing with the scarcity was over £91,000, exclusive of the cost of the Calcutta and locally-purchased grain, and of the carriage of the former by rail. A large proportion of this expenditure,

however, consisted of advances, which were intended to be recovered, and have since been partially realized.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal manufacture of the District is indigo, of which the annual out-turn is 125 tons, selling in ordinary years for about £70,000. The weaving of *tasar* silk cloth gives employment to a considerable number of persons in the District, but this industry appears to be slowly dying out. Several kinds of coarse glass are made, and cotton-weaving and the manufacture of saltpetre are carried on to a limited extent. The trade of the District is yearly increasing, the principal exports being rice, wheat, gram, barley, Indian corn, oil-seeds, and dairy produce, and the chief imports, salt, sugar, and piece-goods; the exports largely exceed the imports in value. The chief wholesale business is with Lower Bengal, but there is also considerable traffic between Nepál and Bhágalpur, the principal exports from Bhágalpur being rice and other cereals, and the chief imports, mustard-seed and paddy.

Administration.—The revenue and expenditure of Bhágalpur have greatly increased since the beginning of the present century. In 1799, the net revenue of the District amounted to £34,747, and the expenditure to £55,226; by 1860-61 the revenue had increased to £85,637, while the expenditure amounted to £54,148; and in 1870-71, the net revenue was £139,535, and the net expenditure, £80,323. In 1880-81, the total revenue was returned at £134,939, of which £57,132 was contributed by the land tax, and £35,421 by excise. The land revenue has varied very much from time to time, owing to changes in the extent of revenue jurisdiction. The assessment per acre is extremely low throughout the District, particularly on the north of the Ganges, while the value of land has increased enormously since the beginning of the century. During the same period, subdivision of property has also gone on very rapidly, the number of estates being thirty-fold, and the number of proprietors nearly eighty-fold, what it once was. Bhágalpur is divided for administrative purposes into four Sub-divisions—the *Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division (936 square miles in extent), Bánká (1185 square miles), Madahpurá (872 square miles), and Súpúl (1275 square miles). There has been a steady increase in the machinery for the protection of person and property in the District. In 1780, there was only 1 magisterial and 1 civil and revenue court in Bhágalpur; in 1850 the number of magisterial courts was 4, and of civil courts, 10; in 1881, there were 11 magisterial and 6 civil courts. The District is divided for police purposes into 12 *thánás* or police circles. In 1880-81, the regular police force consisted of 2 superior and 74 subordinate officers, and 413 constables, maintained at a cost to Government of £8648. In addition to these, there was a municipal police of 123 officers and men, costing £920;

and a village watch or rural force of 3686 men, maintained by the villagers and landholders. The entire police force of the District, therefore, consisted in 1880 of 4298 officers and men, equal to an average of 1 man to every square mile or to every 457 persons. In the same year, the number of persons put on trial for 'cognisable' offences was 1574, of whom 1392 were convicted. There are 2 jails and 2 lock-ups in the District, the principal prison being at Bhágalpur town. The daily average number of prisoners in 1880 was 206. In 1856-57, the number of Government and aided schools was 10, with 358 pupils; in 1870-71, there were 12 such schools, with 750 pupils. An impetus has recently been given, however, to education in the District; and by 1873-74 the number of Government and aided schools had increased to 234, in consequence of the introduction of important changes in the system of primary education, whereby 222 schools received in that year small grants varying from 8s. to 10s. a month. The number of pupils attending these schools was 5972, of whom 5273 were Hindus and 692 Muhammadans. By 1880-81, the effect of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms, by extending Government assistance to indigenous education, had been to augment the number of aided primary schools under the supervision of the Educational Department to 2544 with 21,286 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Malarious fevers, generally intermittent but sometimes also remittent, are endemic in the District, chiefly in the northern Division. They are most prevalent during the rains and in the beginning of the cold weather, and 55 per cent. of the mortality of the District is attributed in the returns to this cause. Dysentery and diarrhœa are always very prevalent; and among the other common diseases of the District are scurvy, jaundice, leprosy, bronchitis, and asthma. The most common of the deadly epidemics is cholera, but Bhágalpur, although it is every now and then visited by severe outbreaks, does not suffer so seriously as some of the neighbouring Districts—a fact attributed to the small number of fairs and religious gatherings which are held, and to the comparatively scanty attendance at those which do take place. The curious fever known as 'dengue' broke out for the first time in Bhágalpur in 1872, and, as usual with this disease, spread throughout the District very rapidly. Small-pox prevails to a considerable extent, but vaccination is gradually finding more favour with the natives. There are 7 charitable dispensaries in the District—one main dispensary at Bhágalpur, and branches at Bánká, Colgong, Madahpurá, Náthnagar, Súpúl, and Pratápganj. They afforded medical relief in 1880 to 573 in-door, and 16,063 out-door patients. The average annual rainfall is returned at 47·49 inches. In 1881, the rainfall registered 42·67 inches, or 4·82 inches below the average. No official thermometrical returns are available. [For further information

regarding Bhágalpur District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 17–262 (Trübner, 1877); also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the *Bengal Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bhágalpur. — Head-quarters Sub-division of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 25° 3′ 30″ and 25° 20′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 41′ 15″ and 87° 33′ 30″ E. long.; area, 936 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1348; number of occupied houses, 93,073; population (1881) 546,899, namely, 468,861 Hindus, 71,645 Muhammadans, 483 Christians, and 5910 'others': average density of population, 584 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·44; houses per square mile, 103; number of persons per village, 430; persons per house, 5·9. The Sub-division comprises the 4 *thánás* (police circles) of Bhágalpur, Kumárganj, Colgong, and Bihipur. In 1883, it contained 4 civil and 5 criminal courts; strength of regular and municipal police, 300 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 1070.

Bhágalpur. — Chief town, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of the District of the same name, Bengal; situated on the right or south bank of the Ganges, which is 7 miles wide at this point. The town is 2 miles in length, and about a mile in breadth. Lat. 25° 15′ 16″ N., long. 87° 2′ 29″ E. Population (1881) 68,238, namely, 48,924 Hindus, 18,867 Muhammadans, and 447 'others'; number of males, 34,916—females, 33,322. Municipal income in 1880–81, £3823; expenditure, £3900. Station on the loop line of the East Indian Railway; distance from Calcutta, 265 miles; by river, 326 miles. Within the town and its neighbourhood (at Champanagar) are some interesting Muhammadan shrines, and two remarkable places of worship, belonging to the Jain sect of Oswáls, one of them erected by the great banker of the last century, Jagat Seth. The Karnagarh Plateau, near the town, formerly contained the lines of the 'Bhágalpur Hill Rangers,' organized by Cleveland in 1780 (*vide* SANTAL PARGANAS). It continued in their possession until 1863, when the battalion was disbanded, and is now held by a wing of a Native Infantry regiment. The town contains two monuments to the memory of Mr. Augustus Cleveland, sometime Collector of BHAGALPUR DISTRICT, one of brick, erected by the landholders of the District; the other of stone, sent out by the Court of Directors of the East India Company from England. An attempt has been made to prove that Bhágalpur occupies the site of the ancient Palibothra, but there seems no reason to doubt the generally accepted identification of that city with Patná. Bhágalpur figures more than once in Muhammadan chronicles of the 16th century. Akbar's troops marched through the town when invading Bengal in 1573 and 1575. In Akbar's second war against the Afghán King of Bengal, his general Mán Singh made Bhágalpur the rendezvous of all the Behar contingents, which in 1592

were sent thence over Chutiá Nágpur to Bardwán, where they met the Bengal levies, and the united army invaded Orissa. The town was subsequently made the seat of an imperial *faujdár* or military governor.

Bhágalpur.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, on the left bank of the Gogra, 54 miles south-east of Gorakhpur town. Lat. 26″ 10′ N., long. 83° 52′ E. An ancient town, which formerly gave its name to a *parganá*, and is said to have been the birth-place and residence of Parasu Ráma, an incarnation of Vishnu. A stone pillar (attributed by some to Parasu Ráma, and by others to Bhim Singh) and several ruins exist in the neighbourhood. Population (1881) 2679.

Bhágamandal. — Village in Padinalknád *táluk*, Coorg, Madras Presidency, with a ruined fort. Lat. 12° 23′ N., long. 75° 36′ E. The place is memorable for the conspicuous part it took in the wars between the Coorg Rájá and Tipú Sultán. The fort was besieged and captured by Tipú in 1785, where he seized some 5000 Coorgs with their families, whom he sent to Mysore and forcibly made Muhammadans. Bhágamandal fort was recaptured by the Coorg Rájá, Dodda Vira Rajendra, in 1790. There is a temple of some importance, endowed by Government with £232 a year, together with £395, 12s. for the *choultry*, and visited by pilgrims proceeding to the source of the Káveri 5 miles farther on.

Bhágírathí.—River of Bengal; a branch of the Ganges, which it leaves at Chhápghátí, near the police station of Sutí in Murshidábád District. Flowing in a southerly direction, it divides Murshidábád into two almost equal portions, and leaves the District below the village of Bidhupárá, close to the battle-field of Plassey. It then forms the boundary line between the Districts of Nadiyá and Bardwán, until it reaches Nadiyá town. Here its waters are met by those of the JALANGI, and the united stream assumes the name of the HUGLI. Chief tributaries, all on the right bank—in Murshidábád, the united waters of the Bánsloi and Páglá, and the Chorá Dekrá; and in Bardwán, the Ajai and the Kharí. Principal towns on the banks—in Murshidábád, Jangípur, Murshidábád, Jiáganj, and Berhampur; in Bardwán, Katwá; in Nadiyá, Nadiyá town. The course of the river frequently changes, and sandbanks and other obstructions are constantly being formed. A series of efforts has been made by Government to keep the channel clear for navigation; and during the hot weather a weekly register of its depth, as well as that of the other Nadiyá rivers (the Jalangí and the Mátábhángá), is published, as a guide to native merchants and boatmen.

This river is regarded by the Hindus as the sacred channel of the Ganges. The Hindu traditional account of the origin of the holy stream is as follows:—King Ságar was the thirteenth ancestor of Ráma,

and had ninety-nine times performed the *Aswamedha jajna* or great Horse Sacrifice, which consisted in sending a horse round the Indian world, with a defiance to any one to arrest its progress. If the horse returned unopposed, it was understood to be an acquiescence in the supremacy of the challenger, and the animal was then solemnly sacrificed to the gods. King Ságar made preparations for the hundredth performance of this ceremony, but the god Indra having himself performed the sacrifice, and jealous of being displaced by a rival, stole the horse and concealed it in a subterranean cell, where a holy ságe was absorbed in heavenly meditation. The sixty thousand sons of Ságar traced the horse to its hiding-place, and believing the sage to be the author of the theft, assaulted him. The holy man, being thus aroused from his meditation, cursed his assailants, who were immediately reduced to ashes, and sentenced to hell. A grandson of Ságar, in search of his father and uncles, at last found out the sage, and begged him to redeem the souls of the dead. The holy man replied that this could only be effected if the waters of Gangá (the aqueous form of Vishnu and Lakshmi) could be brought to the spot to touch the ashes. Now Gangá was residing in heaven, under the care of Brahmá the Creator, and the grandson of Ságar prayed him to send the goddess to the earth. He was unsuccessful, however, and died without his supplication being granted. He left no issue, but a son, Bhágírath, was miraculously born of his widow, and through his prayers Brahmá allowed Gangá to visit the earth. Bhágírath led the way to near the sea, and then declared that he could not show the rest of the road. Whereupon, Gangá, in order to make sure of reaching the bones of the dead, divided herself into a hundred mouths, thus forming the delta of the Ganges. One of these mouths arrived at the cell, and by washing the ashes, completed the atonement for the sin of the sons of King Ságar.

Bhágírathí.—River in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces (lat. 30° 8′ 30″ to 30″ 56′ N., long. 78° 38′ 15″ to 79° 6′ 45″ E.); one of the head-waters of the Ganges; rises from the Gangotri Peak, in the Native State of Garhwál; flows through a wild and rocky bed, with numerous shoals and rapids, and joins the ALAKNANDA at Deoprayág. Thenceforward the united stream is known as the Ganges. The Bhágírathí, though inferior in importance and volume to the Alaknandá, is regarded among the Hindus as the chief feeder of the sacred stream, and is identified with the branch thrown off by the Ganges at Chhápgháti more than 1000 miles below.

Bhágwa.—Seaport in Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 24′ N., long. 72° 40′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82—exports, £2093; imports, £1622.

Bhagwángolá. — River mart on the Ganges, in Murshidábád

District, Bengal, 120 miles north of Calcutta. Lat. 24° 20′ N., long. 88° 20′ 38″ E. There are in reality two villages of the name, five miles from each other, called New and Old Bhagwángolá. The latter was the port of Murshidábád during Muhammadan rule, and is still much resorted to when the Ganges is in flood. At other times, owing to changes which have taken place in the course of the river, it is not accessible by boat, and the river traffic is confined to the new town. This latter is sometimes called Alátalí, and is a depôt for up-country produce, especially indigo seed. Old Bhagwángolá is a police station.

Bhagwantnagar.—*Parganá* in Unáo District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bihár, Pátan, and Magráyar *parganás;* on the east by Khíron and Sareni *parganás*, on the south by Daundia Khera *parganá*, and on the west by Ghátampur *parganá*. Watered by the small rivers Khari and Suwáwan, which both have their rise in this *parganá*, and which occasionally do considerable damage by inundations. Soil principally loam and clay. Area, 45 square miles, of which 19 are cultivated; population (1881) 25,623. Government land revenue, £6771, averaging 4s. 8½d. per acre. Principal autumn crops—cotton, rice, millet, *múg*, vetches, Indian corn, oil-seeds, sweet potatoes: spring crops—wheat, barley, gram, peas, and sugar-cane. Of the 53 villages 25 are *zamíndárí*, 26 *pattídárí*, 1 *tálukdárí*, and 1 revenue-free.

Bhagwantnagar.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 32 miles south-east of Unáo town, on the road from Baksár to Bihár. Founded by and named after Bhagwant Kuár, the wife of Ráo Raghunáth Singh, the Báis chief of Daundia Khera. Population (1881) 3557, namely, Hindus, 3289, and Muhammadans, 268. Six Hindu temples; vernacular school; post office; and registration office. Flourishing trade and manufacture of copper utensils.

Bhagwantnagar.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 1 mile south of Mallánwán. Founded about 180 years ago by Aurangzeb's Hindu *diwán*, Rájá Bhagwant Rái, who named it after himself. Population (1881) 1462, chiefly Bráhmans; number of houses, 219. Considerable manufacture of bell-metal plates and drinking vessels. Bi-weekly market.

Bhai.—Town in Dalmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 3 miles west of Dalmau, on the road from that place to Lálganj, and 20 miles from Rái Bareli town. Picturesquely situated on rising ground, surrounded by numerous groves. Population (1881) 2714.

Bhainsror (*Bhainsrorgarh*, *Bánsror*).—Town and fort in Mewár or Udáipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána; situated on the summit of a lofty rock in the angle of confluence where the Bhámani river falls into the Chambal. Lat. 24° 58′ N., long. 75° 36′ E. Distance (direct) from Udaipur (Oodeypore) 70 miles east-north-east; from Ujjain, 127 miles north. The rock varies from 300 to 700 feet in height above the average

? – It is 55 m from Chitorgarh

level of the river, by which its base is washed on all sides but the north. In this direction the fort is accessible, but the slope has been artificially scarped. The place could, without much difficulty, be reduced by shells; and even before the introduction of artillery, was taken by Alá-ud-dín, Pathán King of Delhi (1295–1315). The summit of the palace is 160 feet above the river, the water level of which is here 1009 feet above the sea. The town contains about 800 houses, and commands the sole passage of the Chambal for a great extent, and all the traffic between Mewár and Haraotí passes through it. It is the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 122 villages. At Baroli, about 3 miles west of Bhainsrorgarh, are vast ruins of ancient temples dedicated to Siva. According to local tradition, the ancient name of Baroli was Bhadráoti, the seat of the Huns, and the traces of an old city, in extensive mounds and ruins, are still to be seen around the more modern Bhainsror. These stupendous temples have been fully described by Tod, but no date has been found for their erection. 'It is evident, however,' says Tod, 'that the whole was not accomplished within one man's existence, nor could the cost be defrayed by one year's revenue of all Rájputána.'

Bhainswál. — Village in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; distant from Muzaffarnagar town 27 miles. Population (1881) 2830; more than 100 brick-built houses, owned chiefly by Játs, Bráhmans, and Baniyás. The village lies very low, close to and west of the main channel of the Eastern Jumna Canal; in the rains it is entirely surrounded by water, and there is a good deal of sickness in consequence. In the centre of the village is a mound 30 feet high, said to contain the grave of Pír Gháib, the founder. Branch post-office.

Bhairabí.—River in Darrang District, Assam, flowing south from the Aká Hills in a tortuous course, and falling into the Brahmaputra. It is navigable throughout the year in its course through British territory, by large country boats, of about four tons burthen, and is nowhere fordable. The stream is said to bring down gold dust.

Bhairagniá.—Village and large grain and oil-seed depôt in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier, on the east bank of the Lál Bakya river, a tributary of the Bághmatí. Lat. 26° 44′ N., long. 85° 22′ E. The Nepál trade changes hands at this place, where the dealers of the plains meet the hillmen. A registering station for traffic was opened here in the beginning of 1876, and a police station in 1877. The town is increasing in importance, and new shops are opening. Population (1881) 1589, namely, Hindus, 1453, and Muhammadans, 136.

Bhairogháti.—Temple and pass in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces; confluence of the Bhágírathí with the Jahnaví, in a deep gorge, confined by perpendicular walls of granite; considered a place

it was given on lease, and a new agricultural village is now springing up on the site of the old town, and the dense jungle is nearly cleared away. According to the recent Census of 1881, the number of inhabited houses was returned at 51, and the population (which is increasing) at 269.

Bhámbore (*Bambura*).—Ruined city near the town of Gharo, in the Núrpur Sakro *táluk*, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 40′ N., long. 67° 41′ E. It was once fortified, and was known as the *Káfir* or Infidel city, with temples of sanctity, but was stormed by the Muhammadans in their first invasion in 711 A.D. Tradition preserves its old name as Debal, Dewal or Dawal, the temple; but it is believed that before the Musalmán invasion it was known under the name of the Mahara or Mansawar. The ruins, as also the numerous coins found on the site, attest its former population and importance.

the country between 1803 and 1815, and were expelled by the British Government, on which the Rání was confirmed in possession of his State by *sanad*. Area, 96 square miles; revenue, £2300. Population (1881) 12,106, namely, 6720 males and 5386 females. Hindus numbered 12,054, Sikhs 7, and Muhammadans 45; number of villages, 327. An annual tribute of £144 is paid to the British. Sentences of death passed by the Rání require confirmation; other punishments are awarded on his own authority.

Bhakkar.—*Tahsíl* of Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, lying along the eastern bank of the Indus; only slowly reclaimed and colonized by Ját and Baluch settlers within the last three centuries. The *tahsíl* is naturally divided into two portions, (1) the *thal*, forming part of the sandy plain of the Sind Ságar Doáb; and (2) the *kachí*, or low alluvial lands on the Indus. Area, 3114 square miles; population (1881) 112,429, namely, males 60,989, and females 51,440; persons per square mile, 36. Muhammadans numbered 97,265; Hindus, 15,086; Sikhs, 59; and 'others,' 19. The administrative staff consists of an extra Assistant Commissioner, *tahsíldár*, and honorary magistrate. These officers preside over 3 civil and 3 criminal courts; 3 police stations; strength of regular police, 61 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 176. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £12,056.

Bhakkar.—Town in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, and headquarters of Bhakkar *tahsíl*. Lat. 31° 37′ 43″ N., long. 71° 5′ 52″ E. Population (1881) 4402, namely, 2492 Hindus, 1895 Muhammadans, 9 Sikhs, and 6 'others.' A third class municipality, with an income in 1881 of £239; expenditure, £276. The town is situated on the left bank of the Indus, on the edge of the *thal* or sandy plain overlooking the *kachí*, or low-lying alluvial lands along the Indus, a channel of which is navigable as far as Bhakkar during the floods. To

level of the river, by which its base is washed on all sides but the north. In this direction the fort is accessible, but the slope has been artificially scarped. The place could, without much difficulty, be reduced by shells; and even before the introduction of artillery, was taken by Alá-ud-dín, Pathán King of Delhi (1295-1315). The summit of the palace is 160 feet above the river, the water level of which is here 1009 feet above the sea. The town contains about 800 houses, and commands the sole passage of the Chambal for a great extent, and all the traffic between Mewár and Haraoti passes through it. It is the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 122 villages. At Baroli, about 3 miles west of Bhainsrorgarh, are vast ruins of ancient temples dedicated to Siva. According to local tradition, the ancient name of Baroli was Bhadráoti, the seat of the Huns, and the traces of an old city, in extensive mounds and ruins, are still to be seen around the more modern Bhainsror. These stupendous temples.

Bhalalá.—Petty State of Jháláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of one village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Lat. 22° 51′ N., long. 71° 56′ E.; estimated revenue £204, of which £47, 8s. is paid as British tribute.

Bhalgám Buldhoi.—Petty State of South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £200. Tribute payable to the British Government, £20, 8s.; to the Nawáb of Junágarh, £5, 16s. Bhalgám village is situated in lat. 22° 27′ N., long. 70° 54′ E.

Bhalgamra.—Petty State in Jháláwár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 3 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers; estimated revenue, £1183; tribute, £150, 10s., of which £140 is paid to the British Government, and £10, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bhálusná.—Chiefship and town within the Political Agency of Máhi Kántha, in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerat), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 50′ 30″ N., long. 72° 50′ E.; estimated area, 59 miles; population (1881) 3548; gross revenue, including transit dues, £492. The products are wheat, millet, sugar-cane, and Indian corn. There is 1 school, with 22 pupils. The chief is a Hindu, a Kochuvan Koli by caste, and his title Thákur. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In matters of succession his house follows the rule of primogeniture. A tribute of £116 is payable to the State of Edar.

Bhám.—Town (deserted) in Wún District, Berár. Lat. 20° 13′ 30″ N., long. 78° 3′ E.; 16 miles south of YEOTMAL. Vast stone ruins, covering a large area, bear witness to the city camps which followed the standard of Raghújí Bhonsla. Tradition relates that of Bairágis (religious mendicants) alone there were at one time no fewer than 5000 houses. The site was till lately covered with dense jungle; but in 1876

it was given on lease, and a new agricultural village is now springing up on the site of the old town, and the dense jungle is nearly cleared away. According to the recent Census of 1881, the number of inhabited houses was returned at 51, and the population (which is increasing) at 269.

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Bhámgarh.—Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces; 8 miles east of Khandwá town. Population (1881) 2257, chiefly cultivators: Hindus, 1991; Muhammadans, 265; Jain, 1. Weekly market and vernacular school.

Bhamráguri.—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam.—*See* BHOMORAGURI.

Bhán.—Village in the Sehwán *talúk*, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Distant 12 miles north-west of Sehwán town. Lat. 26° 33′ N., long. 67° 56′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 1084, chiefly agricultural—833 Muhammadans, 251 Hindus. *Dharmsálá*, post-office, railway station, and Government school.

Bhándak. — The eastern *parganá* of the Warorá *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. (centre) 26° 10′ N., long. 79° 10′ E.; area, about 384 square miles, mainly hill and forest.

Bhándak.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces; 18 miles north-west of Chándá town. Lat. 26° 6′ 30″ N., long. 79° 9′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 2575, namely, Hindus, 2248; Muhammadans, 136; Jains, 16; aboriginal tribes, 175. Contains about 470 houses, scattered over a large extent of ground; and surrounded, except on the west, by ancient groves and jungle. Tradition runs that here stood the great city of Bhadrávatí, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, extending from Bhatálá to the Jharpat, the scene of the battle for the Sámkarna horse. The demi-god Bhíma, whose footprint is still pointed out on the Dewálá Hill, bore away the horse for sacrifice by Dharma, the king. The temple-caves at Bhándak and in the Dewálá and Winjhásaní Hills, the traces of forts on those hills, the temple of Bhadrávatí, the foundations of the king's palace, the bridge over a now dried-up lake, and numerous ruined temples and tanks, testify to the existence here of a great city in the remote past. The town carries on but little trade.

It has a Government school for boys, a police station-house, post-office and a *sarái.* The residents are chiefly gardeners.

Bhandárá.—District in the Nágpur Division of the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 38′ 30″ and 21° 44′ N. lat., and between 79° 29′ 30″ and 80° 43′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Seoní and Bálághát, on the south by Chándá, on the east by Ráipur, and on the west by Nágpur. Population in 1881, 683,779; area, 3922 square miles. The administrative head-quarters are at BHANDARA, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Towards the west, Bhandárá stretches out in an open plain to the banks of the Waingangá, which flows along about half the length of the western border; on the north and east, hills, inhabited chiefly by Gonds and other wild tribes, shut it in. Upwards of one-third of the District is covered with jungle. Few of its mountains attain to any considerable size. Several small forest-clad ranges, branching from the great Sátpura chain, run into the interior, generally in a southerly direction. Another low range, known as the Ambagarh or Sendurjharí, skirts the south of the Chándpur *parganá.* The only isolated peaks worthy of notice are the Baháhi, Kanheri, and Nawágáon Hills. These consist mostly of granitic rock, but near the Waingangá sandstone shows itself in patches among the heights on the west bank of the Gárhví and Bágh rivers. In the upper portion of the course of the Bágh, porphyry is extensively disclosed, with crystals of quartz, and of white and sometimes red felspar, imbedded in a dark mass of the same materials. Of the rivers of Bhandárá, the Waingangá alone retains water through the hot season. Into the Waingangá fall the Báwanthari, the Bágh, the Kanhán, and the Chulban, the only other important streams in the District. But it is the lakes and tanks, of which there are upwards of 5000, that form the most striking feature of Bhandárá. By taking advantage of the dips and hollows afforded by an undulating country, or by excavating artificial basins and throwing long dams across sloping ground, sheets of water, often of enormous size, have been formed. 'These tanks,' writes a former Chief Commissioner, Sir Richard Temple, 'are so numerous and some of them so large, being many miles in circumference, that this tract might almost be called the lake region of Nágpur. Here a tank is not a piece of water with regular banks, crowned with rows or avenues of trees, with an artificial dyke and sluices, and with fields around it, but it is an irregular expanse of water; its banks are formed by rugged hills covered with low forests that fringe the water, where the wild beasts repair to drink; its dykes, mainly shaped out of spurs from the hill, are thrown athwart the hollows, a part only being formed by masonry; its sluices often consist of chasms or fissures in the rock; its broad surface is often, as the monsoon approaches, lashed with surging and crested

waves.' The principal lakes bear the names of Nawágáon, Seoní, and Siregáon, the former covering an area of 5½ square miles, and being 17 miles in circumference. The forest tracts do not contain much valuable timber of a large size fit for building purposes, except the *mahuá* trees, which are preserved by the people for their flowers, used as an article of diet by the poorer classes, and also distilled into a country spirit. The jungles yield gum, medicinal fruits and nuts, edible fruits, and honey, which are gathered and sold by the Gond tribes. The mineral products include iron, which is found in many places, and constitutes an article of export. The mines are mere pits, being generally only ten or twelve feet deep; and the clay furnaces for smelting the ore are very primitive and inefficient. The smelters are principally Gonds, Goárás, Pardháns, and Dhimárs, from whom middlemen purchase the iron in rough slabs. *Geri*, a kind of red ochre, is found and used for dyeing wool and cloth. Building stone is abundant. Owing to the large extent of forest, wild animals abound. The tiger and the panther cause a great destruction of human life; and during the rainy season many persons die from the bites of venomous snakes. Ninety deaths from these causes were registered in the year 1882. Deer of all kinds and wild pigs swarm in the woods, and frequently inflict great injury upon the crops.

History.—Of the early history of Bhandárá nothing is known, except that the legendary Gaulís are said at some remote period to have overrun the country. The Gaulís of the present day are a wandering and pastoral race, who encamp in the jungles, and only visit the villages to sell their cattle or dairy produce, and to purchase provisions. Possibly the Muhammadan princes of the Deccan at one time included Bhandárá in their dominions, but not till the end of the 17th century can our information be relied upon. We then find the District under the rule of the Gond Rájá of DEOGARH. Bakht Buland, the founder of the dynasty, purchased the support of Aurangzeb by his conversion to the Muhammadan faith. Under his government a number of Rájputs, Lodhís, Ponwárs, Korís, Karás, and Kumbís were attracted into the District, settling chiefly in the villages near the Waingangá. Their industry and agricultural skill greatly improved the country, especially in the region about Pauní. The Maráthás under Raghují I. conquered these parts about 1738, but they were not formally administered from Nágpur until 1743. Under the Bhonslas a number of the commercial and soldier castes—Márwárís, Agarwálás, Lingáyats, and Maráthá Kumbís—established themselves in the District. In 1817, when Apá Sáhib was at war with the British, he sent the ladies of his palace, with his jewels and other valuables, for security to Bhandárá. On the surrender of Nágpur, the English troops escorted them back to that city. The next year Chimná Pátel, *zamíndár* of the

Kámthá and Warúd *táluks*, rebelled against the British Government, when Captain Gordon was deputed to Kámthá, and put a speedy end to the disturbance. The District was then administered by Captain Wilkinson, at first from Kámthá, but after 1820 from Bhandárá. In 1830, Rájá Raghují III. attained his majority and succeeded to the government, which he continued to hold till his death in 1853. On the 11th October 1854, Captain C. Elliot was appointed Deputy Commissioner of the District, and since then the history of Bhandárá has been one of peaceful progress. During the Mutiny of 1857-58, the District remained perfectly tranquil. Three companies of infantry and a small body of horsemen were stationed at Bhandárá until 1860, but since that time the police have constituted the only armed force.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 564,813 persons, on an area of 3922 square miles. The later Census in 1881 gave a population of 683,779 on the same area, showing an increase of 118,966, or 21·06 per cent. in the nine years. This increase, however, is more apparent than real, and the Deputy Commissioner attributes one half to defective enumeration in the Census of 1872. The registered increase of births over deaths was 11·76 per cent. The Deputy Commissioner also pointed out that a considerable emigration had taken place of weavers, chiefly to Behár, and of brass workers, chiefly to Chhatisgarh. The District population in 1881 resided in 1612 towns and villages; number of houses, 141,114, of which 133,056 were inhabited and 8058 uninhabited; average density of population, 174 per square mile; number of houses, 34 per square mile; inmates per occupied house, 5·14. Divided according to sex, there were, males 340,811, and females 342,968. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 589,699; Sikhs, 12; Kabírpanthís, 2169; Satnámís, 38; Muhammadans, 13,102; Christians, 157; Buddhist, 1; Jains, 576; Pársís, 4; aboriginal tribes, 78,021. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, who numbered 90,946, of whom 20,258 were returned as Hindus, the remaining 70,688 still professing their primitive faiths. The remaining aboriginal tribes consist of a few Kurkús, Kols, and others. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans in 1881 numbered 6435, and Rájputs 7994, the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Dhers or Mhars (113,589), Kurmís (79,036), Ponwárs (53,990), Telís (36,952), Goarís (42,796), Kálárs (25,195), Dhimárs (29,347), and other cultivating or inferior castes. The Muhammadan population divided according to sect consisted of—Sunnis, 12,021; Shiás, 286; unspecified, 795. Of the 157 Christians, 47 were Europeans or Americans, 6 Eurasians, 87 natives, and 17 unspecified. The Church of England numbered 43 adherents, Roman Catholics 53, and Presbyterians 29. The language in common use is Maráthí, though from the neighbourhood of Urdu-

speaking regions, Urdu is understood generally through the District, and Urdu words and idioms have largely impaired the purity of the Maráthí spoken in Bhandárá. The Gonds and other castes use also their peculiar languages, intelligible only to themselves.

The inhabitants of Bhandárá, even among the higher classes, have a reputation for bluntness and discourtesy; nor do they compensate for this defect by their candour or manliness. Indeed, the two proverbs most frequently in their mouths by no means tend to a practice of the virtues which are usually associated with a rude simplicity—'Charity remains at home,' and 'The perfection of wisdom is deceit.' These are the favourite sentiments of a native of Bhandárá. Good treatment, however, will generally bring out honesty and industry among the Gonds, and the Ponwárs make hard-working agriculturists. But the population generally have none of the hardy, active habits often found in Northern India. Rarely does a person of the higher rank mount a horse; for nearly every journey, long or short, he has recourse to a small two-wheeled ox-cart. And it is not easy to get a fair day's work out of the labourer. Cheap food and a stationary population, a mild, equable climate, and a landlocked District without roads, have doubtless contributed to produce these characteristics; but as the country is being opened up, greater activity already manifests itself. Marriage is lightly regarded among the lower castes in Bhandára, particularly the Ponwárs, Lodhís, and Kumbís. In this licence the women take the lead, often divorcing themselves from their husbands, and selecting of their own free will successive partners, without any opposition from their lawful lords. All, except the higher castes of Hindus, practise the ceremony called *pát*, resembling the *niká* marriage common among Muhammadans, by which, after the death of a first husband or wife, a pair agree to live together. In this District, contrary to the general custom, girls receive more honour than boys; and the usual method of betrothals is reversed, as the relatives of a boy are fain to supplicate the parents of the girl whose hand they would win, instead of being sought after themselves. The general ignorance discovers itself in the loose notions entertained by the people regarding the respect due to the various Hindu divinities. Phallic worship is almost universal throughout the District; and all kinds of quadrupeds, and various reptiles, receive the adoration of their several votaries. Remarkable sepulchres become objects of reverence; and a large tomb near the village of Murmárí, about 10 miles from Bhandárá, where rest the remains of an English lady, is held in great veneration by the surrounding villagers. The few Muhammadans in the District are notorious for neglect of their religious duties, and for their disorderly and dissipated life.

Four towns in Bhandárá each have a population exceeding 5000,

viz. BHANDARA, the District capital (11,150), PAUNI (9773), TUMSAR (7388), and MOHARI (5142). Towns of 1000 to 5000 inhabitants number 109; from 200 to 1000, 916; villages containing fewer than 200 inhabitants, 587. The four large towns constitute the only municipalities. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional class, including Government officers and the learned professions, 6735; (2) domestic servants, etc., 2735; (3) commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 4441; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 146,025; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 59,687; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 3575 labourers, and 117,613 unspecified, including children), 121,188.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3922 square miles in 1880-81, only 1230 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 1183 are returned as cultivable; 301,045 acres of the cultivated land are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 1d. per acre of cultivated land, or 6½d. on the cultivable land. Rice constitutes the staple crop, no less than 468,431 acres being devoted to this purpose; wheat, 80,686 acres; other food-grains, 307,803. Oil-seeds occupy 56,966 acres. Sugar-cane is also extensively cultivated. The beginning and the end of the rains are the sowing times. The chief autumn crop is rice; the chief spring crops are wheat and gram. In northern Bhandárá, as soon as the rice harvest has been garnered, the husbandmen cut the dam, let the water out of the tank, and sow wheat or linseed in the bed; this appears the only means they have of raising a dry crop in the District. They sow their rice in three different ways: *Botá* is simple broadcast sowing; *kaurak*, is sowing broadcast in a prepared field, after steeping the unhusked rice in hot water, and then leaving it to germinate (this mode is only adopted when the sowing happens to be late); the third mode is called *noná*,—a nursery of young rice is first formed in a well-manured piece of ground, and the seedlings are then transplanted to a field prepared as for the *kaurak* sowing, being placed at intervals of about an inch from each other. The Kohris or cultivators of the sugar-cane deserve special mention, as among the most industrious, thrifty, and intelligent cultivators. Nearly the whole of the extensive sugar-cane cultivation of the District is in their hands. Wherever Kohri cultivators are settled, a large irrigation tank is invariably found, and their eye for the levels of the surrounding country and their sagacity in constructing tanks and water-courses are almost marvellous. Irrigation is resorted to and manure used only for the cultivation of rice, vegetables, sugar-cane, and betel. The Census of 1881 returned a total of 5940 proprietors. The tenants-at-will numbered 46,464,

while those having occupancy rights at either fixed or variable rates numbered 15,147. In 1880 the average rent per acre of land suited for rice was 1s. 4d.; for wheat, 1s. 4½d.; for inferior grain, 9d.: the average produce per acre being, rice, 480 lbs.; wheat, 380 lbs.; and inferior grain, 208 lbs. The average number of acres cultivated in 1881 by each head of the agricultural population (258,668, or 37·83 per cent. of the District population), was 6 acres; the amount of Government land revenue and local cesses levied on the landholders was £43,029; and the amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators was £76,465, or an average of 1s. 10½d. per cultivated acre. Rice sold for 6s. 10d. per cwt., and wheat for 5s. 5d. per cwt. In the same year wages averaged for skilled labour 1s. 6d. per diem, for unskilled labour 4½d. per diem, being 2d. or 3d. higher than the rates of four years earlier. Carts, with which Bhandárá is particularly well stocked, may be hired at 1s. 6d. a day. Besides its crops, the District yields jungle produce of some value, especially gums and honey, the gathering of which is almost entirely in the hands of the Gonds. The timber is of little worth, as the trees rarely attain a large size.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Cloth, and brass, and potstone wares constitute the chief manufactures of the District. Pauní formerly produced cloth of singularly fine quality; but the manufacture has now almost ceased, as the weaving classes are day by day decreasing in numbers, and there is now but a small demand for such cloth. A turban of the best sort made to order sometimes costs as much as £20. The original makers of these magnificent cloths are said to have come to these parts on the invitation of the Rájá of Nágpur at the beginning of this century, from Paithan on the Godávarí, and from Burhánpur on the Táptí. They now bear the name of Koshtís. Of late years, the competition of English piece-goods and the rise in the value of cotton have diminished the price of the inferior kinds of cloth; but the export trade from this town to Nágpur, Poona, and Bombay is still considerable. Pauní also produces brass-ware, but Bhandárá is the most important seat of this manufacture, sending its exports to Nágpur, Ráipur, and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The potstone-wares consist of cups, plates, and pipe-bowls, made chiefly at Kanheri and Pendri. Cotton, dyes, and salt from Berar, wheat and rice from Ráipur, English piece-goods from Bombay and Mirzápur, silk from Burhánpur, and cattle from Seoni and Mandlá Districts, form the chief imports. The direction of the trade is chiefly—to and from Nágpur and Ráipur by the Great Eastern Road, which enters the District on the west, and, passing through Bhandárá, crosses the river Bágh by a substantial bridge into Ráipur District;—and partly by a route through Palándúr; to and from Kámthi (Kamptee) by the Tumsár route; and towards

Mandla by Hatta and Kámtha. In 1881, 142,503 carts laden with grain and merchandise from the Chhattísgarh country paid duty at the toll gates on the Great Eastern Road. In 1877, the year of the famine in Southern India, as many as 36,000 carts paid toll in a single week. It was mainly by this road that the plentiful food crops of Chhattísgarh in 1876 and 1877 were made available for the famine-stricken tracts of Southern India and the Deccan. In 1881 there were 58 miles of made roads. Small country carts and pack-bullocks supply the means of carrying on the existing traffic. The rocky barriers in the bed of the Wainganga at Chichgáon, and in the bed of the Bágh at Satoná, limit the water communication during the rains to the interior of the District. The boats employed on these rivers consist of large logs of teak scooped out and lashed together. The Nágpur-Chhattísgarh railway, now (1883) approaching completion, intersects the District, passing Bhandárá town at a distance of 6½ miles. It enters the District at Dhaiwára, by means of a fine girder bridge across the Waingangá. It then proceeds to Tirora, Gondia (where there is a *dák* bungalow), and Ambgáon, and passes through the Darckasá tunnel, 750 feet long, near a beautiful waterfall. After leaving the hills, it enters on the plains of Chhattísgarh at Dongargarh.

Administration.—In 1854, Bhandárá was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Revenue in 1868–69—Land revenue, £40,894; stamps, £3775; excise, £5592; assessed taxes, £5051; and forests, £2553. The settlement of land revenue for the District was concluded in 1867, and the low rate at which it was fixed has greatly encouraged cultivation. The payment is made by two instalments, in April and January. In 1876–77, the total revenue amounted to £57,526, of which the land revenue yielded £40,681. Total revenue in 1880–81, £68,470, of which £40,403 was derived from the land. Under the Maráthá reign there were no established courts of law, but the *pátels* administered justice according to their own idea of what was right. In succession cases, the nationality determined the law to be followed. Suits exceeding £100 in value, however, generally came before the Rájá. Both plaintiff and defendant paid to the Government a fee of one-fourth. Among the lower classes the heads of castes, styled *setyás*, and on an appeal an assembly of *setyás*, decided civil cases. The plaintiff provided victuals and tobacco, or if a Gond, liquor, for the court; and an image of Mahádeva set upon a platform gave the sanctity of an oath to any statement there made. Thieves and burglars were punished by confiscation of goods, imprisonment in irons, or detention in the stocks. Second offences incurred mutilation of hands, nose, and fingers. Women who murdered their husbands generally had their noses

mutilated. The total cost of District officials and police of all kinds amounted in 1880–81 to £11,236. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 7—magistrates, 7; maximum distance of any village from the nearest court, 56—average distance, 30 miles; number of regular and municipal police, 434, costing £5555, being 1 policeman to every 9 square miles and to every 1575 inhabitants. In 1880, the daily average number of convicts in jail was 95·98, of whom 11·32 were females. Unpolished as they are, the inhabitants of Bhandárá have shown themselves more than usually sensible of the value of education. Twenty-eight private schools in the large towns and 27 in the villages supplied instruction, the teachers being Bráhmans or Vidúrs, the illegitimate descendants of Bráhmans, either in the Persian or the Maráthí language. In some cases, these old town and village schools served as foundations for the existing institutions on the introduction of the present system of education. In 1881, the Government or aided schools under Government inspection, all of which have been established since 1864, numbered 53, attended by 3987 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—In 1871, the rainfall at the civil station was 55·97 inches; in 1876 it amounted only to 38·15 inches; in 1880 it was 61 inches. In the latter year the temperature in the shade was thus recorded:—May, highest reading 111° F., lowest 75·55°; July, highest reading 90°, lowest 67°; December, highest reading 83°, lowest 37°. The most deadly disease is fever, which prevails throughout the year, but proves most fatal during the months of September, October, and November. Nearly 80 per cent. of the deaths must be attributed to this cause. Bowel complaints carry off large numbers; and small-pox, owing to the little progress as yet made by vaccination, commits great ravages, more especially during the months of April, May, and June. In 1880, the registered death-rate from all causes was 30·58 per 1000 of the population. Three charitable dispensaries afford medical relief to the poor. [For further information regarding Bhandárá, see the *Settlement Report of the District*, by A. J. Lawrence, Esq., C.S. (1867); the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S., C.S.I. (Nágpur, 1870); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the *Administration Reports* of those Provinces from 1880 to 1883.]

Bhandára.—Chief town and head-quarters of Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 9′ 22″ N., long. 79° 41′ 43″ E. Population (1881) 11,150, mostly Dhers, Koshtís, and Kásárs, with a few Muhammadans and Bráhmans. Situated on the Waingangá river, close to the Great Eastern Road, the town does a good trade in the hardware it manufactures, and in cotton cloth. Built entirely on red gravel, it is dry and healthy, but depends for its water on wells and tanks outside.

Bhandárá has a District court, post-office, Government dispensary, jail, police head-quarters, travellers' bungalow, assistant engineer's office, public library, and Government *zilá* school; also a girls' school, and two indigenous schools for Maráthi, and for Persian and Urdu.

Bhandária.—Petty State of Undsarviyá District in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of one village, with three independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £480; a tribute of £30,145 is paid to the Gáekwár, and £1, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bhánder.—Ancient town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 43′ 30″ N., long. 78° 47′ 55″ E. On the left bank of the Pahúj river, distant 24 miles from Jhánsi. Population (1881) 5605, namely, 4804 Hindus and 801 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 208 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a small revenue is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Stands in the midst of picturesque rocky scenery, and spreads over the side of a hill into the plain beneath. West of the town, a large lake-like tank has been formed by throwing a dam across the bed of a stream flowing into the Pahúj. On the hill above, remains of tanks, wells, and temples, apparently mark the ancient site of a Buddhist monastery; carved granite stones of like origin do service in the town as door-steps or pillars. The principal mosque, built during the reign of Aurangzeb, consists in large part of Buddhist columns. Trade and population declining under pressure of cholera and famine, which have caused emigration to more favoured tracts. The town contains many ruined or vacant houses. Manufacture of *kharua* cloth, exported to Mau (Mhow), Gwalior, and Kálpi; also of white blankets. Police station, post-office, school, grain market, considerable *bázár*, *sarái*, dispensary. Bharauli, 3 miles south-east, has a temple of ancient date still unmutilated.

Bhandeswar.—Hill in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; a bare rock rising abruptly from a wild, uninhabited tract to an elevation of 1759 feet above sea level. The hill is very difficult of ascent, and is crowned by a perpendicular rock 20 feet in height. There are several smaller peaked hills of the same character in the neighbourhood.

Bhándup.—Seaport in Salsette, Thána District, Bombay Presidency; 4 miles south-west of Thána town; a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Lat. 19° 8′ 45″ N., long. 72° 59′ 15″ E. Bhándup had formerly a large rum distillery, which was closed in 1880.

Bhángá.—Trading village in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Kumár river. Chief imports—rice, paddy, salt, mustard, and piece-goods; principal exports—jute, molasses, and sugar. Lat. 23° 23′ 35″ N., long. 90° 1′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 1461. A large number of non-residents attend the market on Mondays and Fridays.

Bhangarhát.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás,

Bengal; situated on the Bhángar Canal. Lat. 22° 31′ N., long. 88° 39′ E. Large market frequented by boatmen, and the scene of an annual Muhammadan fair.

Bhangha.—Town in Bahraich District, Oudh; 20 miles north-east of Bahraich, and 7 north-west of Bhinga. Prettily situated in the rich *doáb* between the Rápti and Bhakla rivers, in the midst of mango groves. Population (1881) 314, or including surrounding hamlets, 2864. Government school.

Bhangoda.—One of the *muttás* of the Bissemkatak Estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; consisting of 32 villages, inhabited by Khonds. Formerly proscribed by the officers of the Meriah Agency as addicted to human sacrifice.—*See* BISSEMKATAK.

Bhánpur.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Búrhá *tahsíl*, Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Area, 208 square miles, of which only about 5 are under cultivation; number of villages, 40; occupied houses, 1295; total population (1881) 6518, namely, 3319 males and 3199 females; average density of population, 31·3 per square mile.

Bhánpura.—Town and *parganá* of Indore State, under the Western Málwa Agency of Central India. The town is situated on the Rewa river, at the base of a ridge of hills (lat. 24° 30′ 45″ N., long. 75° 47′ 30″ E.) on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Kotah, 60 miles east of former, 60 miles south of latter; elevation above sea, 1344 feet; estimated population, 13,400, and about 3300 houses. The town is surrounded by a wall, and has an unfinished stone fort and fine palace, commenced by Jaswant Ráo Holkar, of whom there is a fine marble statue in the palace, and on the walls and gateway are several figures of animals of various kinds. The town also contains a beautiful mausoleum (*chhattri*) of white marble built over the ashes of Jeswant Ráo Holkar, who died in camp at Bhánpura on the 20th October 1811.

Bhánrer.—Hill range in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 9′ and 24° 17′ N. lat., and between 79° 25′ and 80° 46′ E. long., and forming the south-eastern face of the Vindhya hill system. Starting opposite Sankalghát, on the Narbádá (Nerbudda) in Narsinghpur District, it runs in a north-easterly direction for 120 miles; its last section bounding the Maihír valley. Highest peak, Kalumbe or Kalumar, 2544 feet above sea level.

Bhanwád (*Bhanwár*).—Town in Hálár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 4562, namely, 2792 Hindus, 1451 Muhammadans, and 319 Jains.

Bharáwán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 14 miles north-east of Sandíla. Population (1881) 3272, chiefly Bráhmans, living in 555 houses. Village school.

Bhardagarh.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Chhindwárá District, Central

Provinces, adjoining Almodh estate to the south, situated between 22° 4′ and 22° 17′ N. lat., and between 78° 20′ and 78° 30′ E. long., and containing 37 inhabited villages, and a total population (1881) of 2880. The *jagírdár*, who is a Gond, receives an annual allowance of £8, 10s. in lieu of pilgrim tax, and pays a tribute of £3, 10s. His head-quarters are at Tikadhána or Panjrá, a small village of 341 inhabitants, in the south-west of the estate.

Bhárejda. — Petty State of Jháláwár District, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £246; a tribute of £9, 8s. is payable to the British Government, and £3, 3s. as *sukri* on account of Ahmadábád.

Bhareng. — Valley and *parganá* in Kashmír State, lying east of Srínagar, between lat. 33° 20′ and 33° 30′ N., and between long. 75° 10′ and 75° 26′ E. Remarkable for its caverns and subterranean water-courses and fountains, one of which, the Achábád spring, is supposed to be the efflux of the engulphed water of the Bharengi river. The route by the Mírbal pass runs up the valley.

Bharengi.—River of Kashmír State, draining the Bhareng valley (*vide* supra), being formed by the junction of the southern waters from the WARDWAN PASS with the north-western outflow from the Snowy Punjab; partly disappears in a subterranean opening, and is said to reappear in the Achábád spring. Length about 40 miles.

Bhárgaví.—River in Purí District, Bengal; a branch of the KOYAKHAI, one of the distributaries of the MAHANADI. Leaving the Koyákhái near Sardáipur village, it flows in a southerly direction until it reaches a point 6 or 7 miles from the coast, when it turns abruptly to the west, and empties itself into the CHILKA LAKE. It is navigable throughout the rains, when, like the other rivers of Orissa, it frequently overflows its banks, flooding a large portion of the neighbouring country.

Bharthna.—Central *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; comprising a narrow strip of territory running from north to south, and including part of the Doáb uplands, the Jumna valley, and the wild ravine-clad region along the banks of the Chambal and the Kuári *nadí*. Intersected by Etáwah and Bhognipur Branch Canal and East Indian Railway. Area, 415 square miles, of which 215 are cultivated; population (1881) 161,446; land revenue, £30,803; total revenue, £34,651; rental paid by cultivators, £57,572; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. $3\frac{3}{4}$d. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 2 criminal courts, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 62 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 333.

Bharthna.—Village in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bharthna *tahsíl*, 12 miles from Etáwah town, and

a railway station on the East Indian Railway. The place was selected as the head-quarters of the *tahsíl* on account of its central position, but is otherwise unimportant. The Government offices, together with the police station, distillery, post-office, *sarái*, and market, lie on the north of the railway line close to the station, the village itself being a quarter of a mile to the north. A market for the sale of country produce is held on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Bhartpur (*Bharatpur*).—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of a Political Agent, subordinate to the Agent to the Governor-General of India for the States of Rájputána; lying between 26° 42′ and 27° 49′ N. lat., and between 76° 54′ and 77° 48′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by the British District of Gurgáon; on the east by the Districts of Muttra and Agra; on the south-east, south, and south-west by the native States of Dholpur, Karauli (Kerowlee), and Jaipur (Jeypore); and on the west by Alwar (Ulwur). It is about 77 miles in length from north to south, and 63 miles in breadth; area, 1974 square miles. Population (1881) 645,540.

The general appearance of the State is flat and rather low, especially towards the north, the average height of the surface being about 600 feet above the sea, and about 50 feet above the water surface of the Jumna. The uniform character of the country is interrupted by detached hills in the north and south, and by low ranges on some parts of the western and south-eastern frontier, but the general aspect is an alluvial plain, fairly wooded. In the rains, owing to the low level, a considerable amount of surface is flooded. The soil of a great part is hard and dry, and in places much deteriorated by sand. The State suffers from want of water, but is made productive by the industry of its inhabitants.

The geological formation of Bhartpur is almost entirely of the sedimentary class, and the exposed rocks may be divided into three classes—the alluvial; the series called Vindhyan, which occur in the range running from Fatehpur Sikri towards Hindaun; and the quartzite. About 13 miles west of Biána, near the town of Nilhára, are two small hills of a peculiar breccia, probable representatives of the Khaimur conglomerate.

The principal hills of the State are a low range forming the boundary between *parganás* Pahári and Gopálgarh, of Bhartpur and Firozpur and Alwar, running north and south, the highest point of which (Chapra) is 1222 feet. The Kálápahár, close to the Alwar frontier, contains the highest summit in Bhartpur, Mount Alipur, 1351 feet. The Sidgirpahár range runs on the south-eastern frontier in a direction north-east to south-west for a length of about 30 miles, the highest point, Usera, being 817 feet; in it are situated the celebrated Bánsi-

Pahárpura stone quarries. This range becomes broken in the southern part, helping to form the District called the 'Dang.' Other heights are Damdama, 1215 feet, and Mount Rasia in the north, 1059 feet. About 3 miles distant from Bhartpur city is a ridge running north-east to south-west, about 3 miles long, the highest point of which, Madhoni, is 714 feet, a position with sufficient altitude to command the city with modern artillery.

The State is poor in mineral products, except building stone. No precious stones are found; but the stone from the south of Bhartpur, known geologically as Upper Bhanner sandstone, has furnished materials for the most celebrated monuments of the Mughal dynasty at Agra, Delhi, and Fatehpur Síkri, as well as supplying the cities of Mathurá (Muttra), Díg, and Bhartpur. The palaces at Díg, considered among the most beautiful in India, testify to the excellence of this stone. There are two monoliths near Rúphás, which show the immense blocks the quarries yield—one is a column 34′ 6″ long, with an average diameter of 2′ 11″; the other a parallelopiped 42′ 6″ × 5′ 6″ × 4′ on an average.

The State is scantily supplied with rivers, none of them being navigable or even perennial. The principal are the Bánganga or Utangan, rising in Jaipur and flowing through Bhartpur from west to east; the Ruparel, rising in Alwar territory; the Gambír, rising in Jaipur; and the Kákand, rising in Karauli. The last two are subject to sudden rises, but are generally fordable.

The population of the State in 1881 was returned at 645,540, or 327·0 per square mile; classified according to religion, there were of Hindus, males 290,872, females 244,495; of Musalmáns, males 57,180, females 48,486; and of Jains, 4499. By caste, Bráhmans were returned at 70,973; Rájputs, 6107; Baniyá, or trading class, 39,301; Gújars, 43,865; Játs, 53,967; Ahírs, 5409; Mínas, 12,139; Chamárs, 88,584; and Dhákurs, 5708.

The country is popularly known as Brij, or the land of Krishna, and the language, Brij-bhásha, is a village patois. Bhartpur is the only Ját principality of any magnitude in India, and perhaps the only State in which a great proportion of the people belong to the same race as the nobles and princes. The chief towns are BHARTPUR, DIG, BIANA WER BHIWANI, KAMAN, KUMBHER, RUPHAS.

History.—Probably the first authentic information respecting the remote ancestors of the present possessor of Bhártpur is to be found in Ferishta, who states that in 1026 a band of Játs molested Mahmúd of Ghazní on his return from Gujarát (Guzerat), and were nearly exterminated by him. In 1397, Tamerlane, marching towards Delhi, fell in with and massacred a horde of the same race, who were even then noted freebooters. In 1526, the army of Bábar was harassed by them

on his march through the Punjab. During the prosperity of the Mughal empire, the turbulence of their character brought upon them more than once the imperial wrath. The decline of the Mughal power, and the anarchy which followed the death of Aurangzeb, gave full scope for the play of their hardy and daring character. Under their chief, Chúráman, the founder of the present ruling house, they erected petty castles in the villages of Thún and Sinsiniwár, the lands of which they cultivated. Chúráman was dispossessed by his brother Badan Singh, who was formally proclaimed at Díg as leader of the Játs with the title of Thákur. Under the son of Badan Singh, Suraj Mall, the territory of the rising State was considerably extended. He was in favour with the Rájá of Jaipur, and held the forts of Díg and Khumbher.

Bhartpur is first mentioned as a place of great strength about this time (1730). In 1754, Suraj Mall baffled the allied forces of the Wazír, Ghází-ud-dín, the Maráthás, and the Rájá of Jaipur, though in the end he compounded with them by the payment of £70,000. Six years later, he joined, at the head of 30,000 men, the great Maráthá confederacy, which, under Seodaseo Bháo, marched to Delhi to oppose Ahmad Sháh Durání in his invasion of Hindustán; but the incompetence of the Maráthá leader was so patent, and his insolence so galling to Suraj Mall, that he withdrew from the confederacy, and thus escaped the carnage of the defeat at Pánípat. It was during the confusion resulting from this battle that Suraj Mall obtained possession of Agra, by bribing the commander of the garrison. He was surprised and killed in 1763, leaving five sons, three of whom administered the State of Bhartpur in succession. During the reign of the third, Nawal Singh, the fourth son, Ranjít Singh, rebelled, and called to his aid Najaf Khán, who was nominally the commander-in-chief of the army of Delhi, but in reality an independent potentate. Najaf Khán obtained possession of Agra; but being called away into Rohilkhand, Nawal Singh took advantage of his absence to carry the war into the enemy's country. On Najaf Khán's return, accompanied by Ranjít Singh, the State and fortress of Bhartpur were taken; but all the territory was seized by Najaf Khán, except the fortress of Bhartpur, held by Ranjít Singh, and land valued at nine *lákhs* of rupees, which was restored to the latter on the intercession of his mother. On Najaf Khán's death, Sindhia seized all the country, including Bhartpur; but again Ranjít's mother interceded, and Sindhia restored to him 11 *parganás*, to which 3 more were subsequently added for services rendered to General Perron. These fourteen *parganás* now form the State of Bhartpur.

Ranjít Singh of Bhartpur was one of the first chieftains of northern Hindustán to connect his interests with those of the British Govern-

ment. At the commencement of the Maráthá war, in 1803, a treaty was concluded with him by the British Government, as a consequence of which Lord Lake was joined by a Bhartpur contingent of horse, which did good service at the battle of Laswárí (Laswaree), and throughout the campaign against Sindhia. For these services, the British Government transferred to Bhartpur 5 districts, yielding 7 *lákhs* of rupees. But when war broke out with Holkar, the Rájá of Bhartpur first attempted evasion and then refused to send his contingent; and when the routed troops of Holkar were pursued to the glacis of Díg, a destructive artillery fire was opened from the ramparts on the British troops. Thereupon Lord Lake attacked Díg, and carried it by assault. Bhartpur was then invested on the 7th January 1805. The town was 8 miles in circumference, surrounded by a mud wall of great height and thickness, protected by numerous bastions, and a broad and deep moat filled with water. The garrison was estimated at 8000 men; and the artillery at hand for employment in breaching bore no proportion to the defensive strength of the works. Four successive assaults were repulsed; and finally the British army, with a loss of 388 killed and 1894 wounded, was compelled to withdraw. Though victorious, the Rájá was evidently alarmed at the pertinacity of the assailants, aad his success was followed by overtures for peace. Ranjít Singh surrendered the fort, and agreed to expel Holkar from his territories. By this treaty, the five districts conferred on him in 1803 were resumed, and he agreed to pay an indemnity of 20 *lákhs* of rupees (say £200,000), 7 *lákhs* of which were subsequently remitted.

Ranjít Singh of Bhartpur died in 1805, leaving four sons. The eldest, Randhír Singh, ruled for eighteen years; the second, Baldeo Singh, succeeded, but only ruled eighteen months. Balwant Singh was now the rightful heir; but his cousin, Dúrjan Sál, grandson of Ranjít Singh, seized the fortress of Bhartpur and imprisoned the heir in 1826. An army of 25,000 men, well provided with artillery, led by Lord Combermere, marched against Bhartpur. Notwithstanding the large force of artillery, the strength and thickness of the walls offered such resistance to the breaching batteries that it became necessary to resort to mining. The mines were commenced on December 23rd, and sprung on the 17th January following, when a sufficient breach was effected, and the fortress carried by assault on the 18th. Dúrjan Sál was made prisoner; Balwant Singh, then an infant, was placed in power, his mother acting as regent, and a political agent superintending affairs. In 1835, Balwant Singh was put in charge of the administration, and died in 1853, being succeeded by his only son the present Maháráját, Jaswant Singh, who was born in 1852. During his minority, the administration was carried on by a political agent and council of seven Sardárs. The government

was made over to him with full powers, on his coming of age in 1869. The chief holds a *sanad* of adoption, and his State is in offensive and defensive alliance with the British Government. He is entitled to a salute of 17 guns.

Administration. — The revenue of the State in 1882 was about £280,000. For judicial administration the State is divided into two parts, the northern division comprising the *parganás* of Díg, Kámán, Gopálgarh, Pahárí, and Nága, and the southern division the *parganás* Kumbher, Alihaigárh, Bhusáwar, Wer, Biána, Uchain, Rudáwal, and Rúphás. No tribute is paid, nor any contributions to local contingents. A mint is kept up, at which both silver and copper are coined. There is a central school at the capital, where English, Persian, Sanskrit, and Arabic are taught. There are also 12 *tahsílí* and 215 *halkabandí* (indigenous) schools, which teach the rudiments of Urdu and Hindí. The number of dispensaries is 13, besides a large hospital at the capital, all supervised by an Assistant Surgeon in the pay of the State. There is a central jail at Sewar, 3 miles from Bhartpur, and two smaller ones—one in the fort of Bhartpur, the other in the fort of Díg. The Rájputána State Railway line, connecting Agra with Jaipur (Jeypore), Ajmere, etc., is constructed on the metre gauge system, and passes through the middle of the State, from Ikran in the east to Kherli in the west, a distance of about 40 miles. The total armed strength of the State amounts to 10,210 men, of whom 1460 are cavalry, 8500 infantry and police, and 250 artillery. There are 38 cannon, unserviceable as field guns, but sufficient for purposes of ceremony. The total number of police of all kinds and denominations is about 3850. The State is well provided with the means of communication, being traversed by two main roads from north to south and from east to west, the greater part of which are metalled; all the towns off these lines are connected with them by good country roads. No toll is levied. There was formerly a thriving trade in the manufacture of salt, which was produced in large quantities throughout the State. Since the conclusion of an agreement with the Government of India in 1879, the salt-works have been closed, and the salt-workers (*khárwáls*) have found employment elsewhere. [For further information regarding Bhartpur, see the *Gazetteer of Rájputána*, vol. i. pp. 131--178 (Calcutta, 1879).]

Bhartpur (*Bharatpur*).—Chief town and fortress of Bhartpur State, Rájputána; situated on the high road between Agra and Ajmere, and on the Rájputána State Railway, 35 miles from Agra and 112 from Jaipur (Jeypore). Lat. 27° 13′ 5″ N., long. 77° 32′ 20″ E. Height above sea level, 577 feet; population (1881) 66,163, namely, males 36,580, and females 29,583. Hindus numbered 51,211; Muhammadans, 14,945; and 'others,' 7. The forts and ramparts, as they

now stand, were constructed in 1733 by Badan Singh. The town is named after Bharat, a legendary character of great fame in Hindu mythology, and is considered to be under the tutelary influence of Krishna, who is worshipped here under the name of Bihári. The fortress has played a prominent part in the history of the State; an account of the sieges by Lord Lake in 1805, and Lord Combermere in 1827, will be found in the article on BHARTPUR STATE (*vide supra*). The town contains a large hospital, a school, a jail, a staging bungalow, and a post-office. The art of making a particular kind of *chaurí* is entirely confined to a few families of the town in the employ of the Darbár, and the process is kept a profound secret. The handles of these *chauris* are of sandal-wood, ivory, silver, etc., and handsomely ornamented. The secret is the process by which the tail is made; it is composed of long, straight, round fibres of either ivory or sandal-wood, which in good *chauris* are almost as fine as ordinary horse hair. A considerable fair is held here annually.

Bhárúdpura.—Petty State or guaranteed Thákurate of the Deputy Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, in Central India. The chief, who is a Bhumiá, holds 3 villages, for which he pays £33 annually to the Dhár State; besides the village of Kanrípura, in Mandú, which he holds in perpetuity, paying £4 per annum. Revenue about £300. Population 71,724.

Bhasmangi.—Hill in Tumkur District, Mysore State. Crowned with fortifications, and containing on its summit a temple of Bhasmangeswára. It possesses a perennial supply of water. A few of the wild tribe of Bedars live half-way up, and cultivate the fields below. Lat. 13° 44′ N., long. 77° 6′ E.

Bhatálá.—Village in Chándá District, Central Provinces, situated 26 miles north-west of Bhándak town, and supposed to have formed part of the ancient Bhadrávati. On a hill near the village are the remains of a fine ancient temple, in good preservation; the whole hill bears traces of having been fortified, while at the foot are several tanks. Close by is a quarry of excellent free-stone.

Bhátgáon.—*Zamíndári* or estate in the Seonáráyan *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces; lying south of the Mahánadí. Lat. 21° 39′ 30″ N., long 82° 51′ E.; area, 62 square miles, of which about 17 are cultivated and about 19 cultivable; number of villages, 44; occupied houses, 2561; population (1881) 9892, namely, 4913 males and 4979 females; average density of population, 159 per square mile. The *zamíndár* is a Bíjá by caste.

Bhátgáon.—Village in Seonáráyan *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2157, namely, Hindus, 1968; Kabírpanthís, 110; Muhammadans, 62; aboriginal tribes, 17.

Bhátgáon.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal. Population (1881)

5723, namely, 2775 Hindus and 2034 Muhammadans; area of town site, 5060 acres.

Bhátgáon.—Town in the Native State of Nepál, and formerly the favourite residence of the Bráhmans of the country; the inhabitants are now chiefly Hinduized Newars. The population is estimated at 30,000. Approximate lat. 27° 37′ N., long. 85° 22′ E. It is well kept, and has some fine old buildings. The old Mall dynasty of Bhátgáon, like those of Pátan and Khatmandu, in the same valley, succumbed before the Gurkhá invaders in A.D. 1768–69. The town is garrisoned by four regiments of infantry, numbering about 2000 fighting men. It is connected with Khatmandu, the capital of Nepál, by a bridged carriage road about 8 miles in length. There are no fortifications. Cooking utensils and other vessels of brass, copper, and bell metal are made here for home use and exportation to Tibet.

Bhathán.—Petty State in Jháláwár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, and 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue £316, of which £64 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £6 to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Lat. 22° 41′ N., long. 71° 54′ E.

Bhátí.—The name given by the Muhammadan historians to the coast-strip of the SUNDARBANS from Hijili to the Meghná. Lat. 20° 30′ to 22° 30′ N., long. 88° to 91° 14′ E. The name means 'lowlands overflowed by the tide,' and is still applied to the Sundarban tracts of Khulná and Bákarganj Districts, Bengal.

Bhatkal (Sanskrit name *Manipura*).—Town in the Honáwár Sub-division, North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 13° 59′ N., long. 74° 34′ 40″ E. Within a mile and a half of the mouth of a small stream that falls into the Arabian Sea, about 64 miles south-east of Kárwár. Population (1881) 5618, namely, 3064 Muhammadans, 2515 Hindus, 25 Jains, and 14 Christians; area of town site, 556 acres. There are 2 small and 2 large mosques; and the Musalmán population has the special name Nawáyat, said to mean 'newly arrived,' owing to their being Sunní Persians, driven from the Persian Gulf by the persecution of their Shiá brethren, in the eighth century. Many of these Nawáyats are wealthy traders, and visit different parts of the country for business purposes, leaving their families at Bhatkal. There is a post-office.

From the 14th to the 16th century, under the names of Batticala (Jordanus, 1321), Battecala (Barbosa, 1510), and Baticala (De Barros), Bhatkal was a flourishing centre of trade, where merchants from Ormuz and Goa came to load sugar and rice. In 1505, the Portuguese established a factory at Batticala, but a few years later the capture of Goa (1511) deprived the place of its importance. Two attempts were made by the British to establish an agency at Bhatkal—the first in 1638 by a country association, the second in 1668 by the regular company, but

both failed. According to Captain Hamilton (1690–1720), the remains of a large city and many Jain and Bráhman temples were still to be seen in the beginning of the 18th century.

Bhátkuli.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár; 10 miles from Amráoti town. Population (1881) 2508.

Bhatnair (*Bhatner*).—Town and fort in Hanumángarh District, on the north of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána, on the left bank of the Ghagar river, now dried up. Lat. 29° 34′ 55″ N., long. 74° 20′ 45″ E. Captain Powlett, in his *Gazetteer of the Bikaner State*, says: 'The Bhatnair fort has attained historical celebrity from its position on the direct route of invasion from Central Asia to India. I am informed by Mr. Oliver, late Deputy Commissioner of Sirsa, that Bhatnair, Abor, Bhatindá, and Sirsa, situated at the angles of a nearly square figure, with a side about 50 miles long, had each a fort on the same plan and of the same dimensions, and thus formed a "quadrilateral" in the path of any invader from the north-west.' The *Tárikh-i-Hind* speaks of Bhatnair having been taken by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1001; and Tod says that it was attacked by Timúr. It seems probable that Timúr left a Tartar Chagitai noble in charge, who was expelled by Bhattís from Márot and Phulra; but whether the place took its name originally from them, or from one Rájá Bharat, is much disputed. General Cunningham states that Bhatnair was taken by Khetsi Kondhálat in 1527 A.D. from Sada Cháyal Rájput, of which clan no mention is made by Tod. In 1549, Mirzá Kamrán, brother of Humáyún, took the fort by assault, on which occasion Khetsi, with 5000 Rájputs, was slain, although Kamrán was subsequently defeated by Ráo Jetsa of Bíkaner (Bickaneer). Firoz Cháyal had meanwhile recovered the fort, and the Ráo therefore sent his son, Thákur Sí, to retake it. This was done by surprise and sudden assault. In Samvat 1816 or 1817, the fort was taken by Hassan Muhammad, a Bhattí leader, but was again retaken. In Samvat 1861, it was beleaguered by a Bíkaner (Bickaneer) force; and after a close investment, lasting more than five months, the place was taken. In 1800 A.D., it was attacked by the adventurer George Thomas, to whom it capitulated after the ramparts had been breached. He did not hold it long, however, and it eventually reverted to the State of Bíkaner. Bhatnair, now called Hanumángarh, is about 150 miles from Bíkaner. It is the head-quarters of the *tahsíldár* of the District, which comprises about 110 villages.

Bhátpur.—Village in Hardoi District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Gúmti, 20 miles east-north-east of Sandíla, and 6 south of Bári. Population (1881) 2308, chiefly of the Báis caste.

Bhattiána.—Tract of country in the Punjab, now included in SIRSA District. It derives its name from the Bhattís, a wild Rájput clan, who held the country lying between Hariána, Bíkaner, and Baháwalpur.

Skirts the borders of the great sandy desert, and at present contains a small and scattered population. Numerous ruins of towns and villages show that the valley of the Ghagar, and the tract on either side of it, was once the home of a thriving people. But Timúr, who passed through the District on his invasion of India, devastated the tract, and when it came into our hands it was almost uninhabited. It has since been settled by immigrants from the Sikh States and Rájputána, and the population is fast increasing. The Ghagar flows in a valley of alluvial clay of some three to four miles in width, within which its waters are used for irrigation purposes. But the rude dams which it was the custom to construct have lately been removed on the complaint of the Bíkaner State. The stream, which once joined the Sutlej (Satlaj) near Baháwalpur, now disappears in the desert of Bíkaner. At the close of the last century, the tract, then utterly deserted, fell into the hands of the Bhattís, a band of nomads and robbers, who planted a few fortified villages in the midst of the waste, as places of refuge on the approach of danger. In 1795, George Thomas, the adventurer of Hariána, extended his influence over the Bhattí chiefs, who paid him at least a nominal allegiance. After the victories of Lord Lake in 1803, Bhattiána passed with the rest of the Delhi territory under British rule; but no practical steps were taken to secure this outlying possession until 1810. A military force was then despatched against two Bhattí chieftains, Bahádur Khán and Zabta Khán, who had proclaimed their independence. Bahádur Khán was overpowered and expelled the country; but Zabta Khán swore fealty to the British Government, and secured possession of his territory for the time. In 1818, however, he connived at certain attacks made against Fatehábád within British limits; and a second force was sent to expel him and confiscate his estates. After protracted boundary disputes with the Sikh States, a District of Bhattiána was formed in 1837; and when it passed in 1858 to the Punjab Government, it was called SIRSA DISTRICT, which name it now bears.

Bháturiá.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 26′ N., long. 88° 20′ E.

Bhaunagar ranks as a first-class Tributary State among the many petty States in Káthiáwár; its chief is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and he maintains a military force of 2765 men, also 85 mounted and 500 foot

Bhaunagar (*Bhávanagar*).—Native State within the British Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerat), Bombay Presidency, lying between 20° 56′ 30″ and 22° 16′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 16′ and 72° 20′ 45″ E. long.; area, 2860 square miles; population in 1881, 400,323, distributed among 659 villages, and consisting of 346,094 Hindus, of the Vaishnav, Smárta, and Jain sects, 37,040 Muhammadans, and 17,189 'others.' Gross revenue,

about £230,000. Over about one-half the area, the soil is the *regar* or black cotton earth, the remainder is light and sandy. Water is obtained from wells and rivers. The climate on the sea-coast is good, but inland it is hot and dry. The most common disease is fever. Products, grain, salt, and cotton; manufactures, oil, copper and brass vessels, and cloth. The quantity of cotton produced is very considerable, and forms one of the chief sources of wealth of the State. The exports from its various ports in 1880–81 were returned at a total value of £1,164,921; imports at £1,196,254. The State does not levy transit dues. A road has been constructed from Bhaunagar to Vartej and Gogo, and another to Dhasá. About 60 miles of the Káthiáwár or Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway runs through the State.

The present Thákur Sáhib of Bhaunagar, named Takht Singhjí, was born about 1858. He is a Gohel Rájput, and was educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. During his minority, the administration was conducted by joint administrators—one a British officer, the other the old Minister of the State.

The tribe of Gohel Rájputs are said to have settled in the country about the year 1260 A.D. under their chief Sejak, from whose three sons Ránojí, Sárangjí, and Sháhjí, are descended respectively the chiefs of Bhaunagar, Láthi, and Pálitána. The Wála State also is an offshoot from Bhaunagar. The town of Bhaunagar was founded in 1723 by Bhau Singh, grandfather of Wakhat Singh, who succeeded to the chieftaincy in 1772. Bhau Singh, his son Ráwal Akherajji, and his grandson Wakhat Singh, took great pains to improve the trade of their country, and to destroy the pirates who infested the neighbouring seas. A very intimate connection was thus formed between Bhaunagar and the Bombay Government. In 1759, the British Government acquired a right to a fourth share of the customs of the port of Bhaunagar from the Sidi of Surat, to whom it had been granted by Bhau Singh, as the price of protection from the enmity of the Nawáb of Cambay. In 1771, Ráwal Akherajji assisted the Bombay Government in reducing Talája and Mahuwa, which were occupied by piratical Kulís. After the conquest of Talája, the fort was offered to Akherajji by the Bombay

breached. He did not hold it long, however, and it eventually reverted to the State of Bíkaner. Bhatnair, now called Hanumángarh, is about 150 miles from Bíkaner. It is the head-quarters of the *tahsíldár* of

engagement arranged by the British Government in 1773, he was allowed to retain on paying a sum of £7500. The boundaries of the Bhaunagar State were largely increased by various other acquisitions made by Wakhat Singh previous to the settlement of Káthiáwár.

When Gujarát (Guzerat) and Káthiáwár were divided between the Peshwáand the Gáekwár, thewestern and larger portion of the Bhaunagar possessions were included in the Gáekwár's share; while the eastern and

smaller portion, including Bhaunagar itself and the original estates of the family in Síhor (Sehore), fell to the Peshwá, and formed part of the Districts of Dhandhúka and Gogo, which the Peshwá ceded to the British Government under the treaty of Bassein. At the time of the settlement of Káthiáwár, therefore, part of the Bhaunagar possessions had already become British territory, while part remained under the Gáekwár. The revenue (*jamá*) demanded from the British portion was £1165, and that payable to the Gáekwár was fixed at £7450. But as it was expedient to consolidate in the hands of the British Government the various claims over Bhaunagar, an agreement was made, with the Thákur's consent, for the transfer of the Gáekwár's tribute in Bhaunagar to the British Government, which was accordingly included in the cessions made in 1807 by the Gáekwár for the support of a contingent force. In 1839, the British Government suppressed the mint at Bhaunagar, where copper money had been previously coined. As compensation for this, a sum of £280 a year was granted to the Thákur. A further sum of £400 was given to him, in consideration of his resigning all claims to share in the land or sea customs of Gogo. The Thákur also subscribed the usual engagements, exempting from duty vessels putting into his port under stress of weather.

After the cession of Dhandhúka and Gogo, the chief of Bhaunagar was tacitly permitted to exercise the same powers as before in the portion of his estates which fell within these Districts. But in consequence of a serious abuse of power, his British estates were, in 1815, placed under the jurisdiction of the English courts. The Thákur never ceased to complain of this change, and to bring forward claims. Eventually, after full investigation, an agreement was concluded by which the Thákur's revenue in his British estates was fixed at £5200 in perpetuity. In 1866, certain villages in this portion of the State were removed from the jurisdiction of the revenue, civil, and criminal courts of the Bombay Presidency, and transferred to the supervision of the Political Agent in Káthiáwár. In 1873, the Bhaunagar State made an agreement with the British Government for the construction of a telegraph line between Bhaunagar and Dholera.

Bhaunagar ranks as a first-class Tributary State among the many petty States in Káthiáwár; its chief is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and he maintains a military force of 2765 men, also 85 mounted and 500 foot police. He has powers of life and death over all except British subjects. A tribute is payable of £15,449, 19s. jointly to the British Government (£12,806), the Gáekwár, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The chief has received a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 117 schools, with 6238 pupils.

Bhaunagar (*Bhávánágár*).—Town and port in the Gulf of Cambay, and chief town of the State of the same name, Káthiáwár, Bombay

Presidency. Lat. 21° 45′ N., long. 72° 12′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 47,792, namely, 34,978 Hindus, 8434 Muhammadans, 3714 Jains, 248 Christians, 95 Pársís, and 323 'others.' The town was founded in 1742 by Bhau Singh, and rapidly rose to influence under a line of princes who encouraged commerce and suppressed the piratical communities that infested the Gulf of Cambay. It has a good and safe harbour for shipping of light draught, and carries on an extensive trade, being the principal market and harbour of export for cotton in Káthiáwár. It possesses a spinning and weaving mill, working 12,064 spindles in 1875, and several steam presses. The harbour is difficult of access, being approached by a winding creek. The export of cotton to Bombay in 1874–75 was valued at £1,313,799. Dispensary and post-office.

Bhausingh.—Market village on the Bhágírathí river, in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 36′ 24″ N., long. 88° 13′ 30″ E. Chief trade—salt, jute, and cloth. Comprised within the municipality of Dainhát.

Bhavání (*Bhawání*).—River rising in the Kunda group of the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency. It enters the low country in lat. 11° 9′ N., long. 76° 37′ E.; and after a winding course eastward, 105 miles in length, during which it receives several affluents, the Moyár being the chief, it joins the Káveri (Cauvery) at the town of Bhavání. The chief places on its banks are Mettapolliem (Mettupálayam), where it is crossed by a good masonry bridge, Attáni, Denaikankotia, Satyamangalam, and Bhavání, where it joins the Káveri (Cauvery). Fish abound in the stream, especially near Mettapolliem; the water is considered unwholesome. It feeds four irrigation works, of which three are important, viz. Arkankottai and Tádapalli, from the Kodivalli anicut near Satyamangalam, and the Kalingarayan, from the anicut near Bhavání. The gross revenue from the irrigated lands is £24,700.

Bhavání. — *Táluk* in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 722 square miles, containing 1 town and 61 villages. Houses, 19,651; population (1881) 94,123, being males 46,230, and females 47,893. The *táluk* is bounded on the north and east by the Káveri river; on the south by the Erode *táluk*, and on the west by the Satyamangalam and Collegal *táluks*. The north and west are hilly and covered with forest, the Burghur (Bargúr) hills marking the western boundary. Wild tribes, of whom little is known, are found on the hills. The *táluk*, especially near the forests, is unhealthy. Irrigation is carried on to a small extent, chiefly by the Appagúdal series of tanks, irrigating 1428 acres, of which 1292 are assessed at £814. Area about 536 square miles, of which 135,327 acres are occupied. Land revenue, £11,858. Number of villages, 66. Above 80 per cent. of the soil is red sand, and the average dry assessment per acre is 1s. 10d. The

chief roads are the Satyamangalam road, which nearly follows the course of the Bhavání river, and two roads leading to Mysore by Bargúr and Nadukaval respectively. Products are ordinary grains, iron in small quantity, good and well-dyed cottons, carpets, gunny, and forest produce. There are few schools, and those of the primary class; 4 large and 4 small markets where fees are collected, 28 ferries, and 6 police stations. Trade is unimportant, except in grain and forest produce. There are 36 arrack and 37 toddy shops in the *táluk*. Near Nerinjipetta there is a large anicut across the Káveri (Cauvery), at present out of repair and useless; it is doubtful whether its repair would be profitable.

Bhavání (*Bhavání Kúdal*). — Town in the Bhavání *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; formerly feudatory to the Rájá of Madura. Lat. 11° 26′ N., long. 77° 44′ E.; population (1881) 5930, almost exclusively Hindus (5672), 20 per cent. being Bráhmans; houses, 1387. Situated at the junction of the Bhavání and Káveri (Cauvery) rivers, 9 miles north of Erode railway station. Once the chief town of the District, now only a post town and head-quarters of the *tahsíl*;

Bhenglaing.—River in Amherst District, Arakan Division, British

here crossed by nine masonry bridges, over which the high road from Madras to Coimbatore passes, and the town shares in the traffic on seven roads which converge here. These are the main roads to Salem, Coimbatore, and Satyamangalam; the Hassanúr *ghát*, and Bargúr *ghát* roads, and the roads to Erode and Kondapádi. In November, many pilgrims assemble at the temple of Sangamma Iswara, built at the confluence (*sangamma*) of the rivers. The bridge over the Káveri (Cauvery) was completed in 1847, and immediately afterwards destroyed by the freshets. It was rebuilt with 26 spans, at a cost of £4900, and again opened for traffic in 1851. Good cotton carpets and cloths are made here and dyed.

Bhaw.—River in Pegu District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* BHAW.

Bháwál (or *Nágarí*).—Village in Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 59′ 35″ N., long. 90° 27′ 50″ E. In 1839, this and several neighbouring villages were the property of a Roman Catholic Mission, and Bháwál contained in that year about 500 houses, almost entirely inhabited by Christians of Portuguese descent.

Bháwan.—Town in Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 8 miles south-east of Rái Bareli town. Lat. 26° 26′ N., long. 81° 18′ E. Founded by a Bhar chief of the same name about 500 years ago. On the overthrow of the Bhar power, the town was made over to a Muhammadan chief, and a fort built, the remains of which now consist of unshapely mounds. Masonry mosque.

Bhawánandpur. — Village in Sálbárí *parganá* (fiscal division),

Dinájpur District, Bengal; 6 miles north of Ránísankáil police station, and 1 mile west of the river Kulik. Scene of the celebrated Nekmard fair held in honour of a *pír*, or Muhammadan saint, buried here. His tomb, in a mat hut in the middle of a mango grove, is visited during the six or seven days of the fair by about 150,000 persons from all parts of the country. The fair is opened on the first day of the Bengali year, corresponding to the 10th or 11th April. A great variety of articles are brought for sale. Oxen come from Purniah and the surrounding Districts, ponies from the Bhután Hills, horses from Kábul and the Behar Districts, elephants from the Dárjíling *tarái* and Assam, and camels from the north-west. Mughals and Afgháns bring dried fruits, embroidered saddlery, looking-glasses, etc. The hill tribes bring down blankets, woollen cloths, ponies, and *yák* tails. The Nepálís sell *kukris* (heavy bill-hooks, the national weapon of the Gurkhás) and *chiretá* leaf. Quantities of real and imitation coral beads are exposed for sale by the Márwárí shopkeepers of Dinájpur. Besides the above, there are English piece-goods, brass pots of all sorts and sizes, hookahs, grain, etc.

Hills, Madras Presidency. It enters the low country in lat. 11° 9′ N.,

Bhawánípatná.—Village in Káláhandi Feudatory State, attached to Sambalpur District of the Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3483, namely, Hindus 3366, and Muhammadans 117.

Bhawánípur.—Suburb of Calcutta, with a central lunatic asylum for Europeans, several schools, a dispensary, etc. Lat. 21° 32′ N., long. 88° 23′ E. The native village is on Tolly's Canal. Some trade in firewood is carried on.

Bháyáwadar.—Town in Hálár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 51′ 15″ N., long. 70° 17′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 5197, namely, 4428 Hindus, 669 Muhammadans, and 100 Jains.

Bhedan (or *Basaikelá*).—Ancient Gond chiefship, now attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 24 miles south-south-west of Sambalpur town. Lat. 21° 12′ N., long. 83° 47′ 30″ E. The population, residing in 30 villages, spread over an area of 60 square miles, consists of Bráhmans, Ladras, Kultás, Gonds, and Dhimáls. The estate is highly cultivated, the chief product being rice. Pulses and oil-seeds are also grown to a small extent, while sugar-cane cultivation is spreading. The revenue of the estate amounts to about £327 a year, and an annual tribute is payable to Government of £104. The chiefship is said to have been conferred on Sisa Rái Gond, the founder of the family, by Balrám Deo, the first Chauhán ruler of Sambalpur, about 300 years ago. Manohar Singh, the chief in 1857, joined the rebels under Surendra Sá, and being killed in action, was succeeded by his son Baijnáth Singh, a minor. Owing to the embarrassed circumstances of the family, the estate came under Government management in 1878. The

sum of £150 is yearly spent in the administration of the estate, and for the support of the Chief and his family, the balance of the realizations being devoted to the reduction of debt. The chief village, Bhedan (pop. 1781), has an excellent school, with an average of 45 pupils.

Bheel 'Agency.'—A collection of Native States in Central India. —*See* BHILWARA.

Bheeleng.—River and town in Shwe-gyin District, British Burma. —*See* BILIN.

Bheeleng-Kyaik-hto.—Township in Shwe-gyin District, British Burma.—*See* BILIN-KYAIK-TO.

Bheeloo-Gywon.—Island at the mouth of the Salwín river, Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* BILU-GYWON.

Bheláni.—Town in the Nausháro Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 1450, namely, 700 Muhammadans, chiefly Sahátas; and 750 Hindus, principally Lohános. Distant 18 miles north-east of Thárusháh. Founded prior to the 16th century. It adjoins the town of HALANI.

Bhenglaing.—River in Amherst District, Arakan Division, British Burma.—*See* BINLAING.

Bhensdehi.—Village in Betul *tahsíl*, Betul District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2653, namely, Hindus, 2373; Muhammadans, 192; Jains, 80; aboriginal tribes, 8.

Bhera.—*Tahsíl* in Sháhpur District, Punjab; lying between 31° 54′ 50″ and 32° 35′ 45″ N. lat., and between 72° 45′ 45″ and 73° 25′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1181 square miles; population (1881) 167,260, namely, males 89,809, and females 77,451; persons per square mile, 142. Hindus numbered 24,752; Muhammadans, 114,282; Sikhs, 1215; 'others,' 27,011. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £14,291. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár* and 1 *munsif*, who preside over 1 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 9; strength of regular police, 138 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 173. Near the village of Vijjhi, in Bhera *tahsíl*, is found one of the most conspicuous of the mounds abounding everywhere throughout Sháhpur District, which tell of a bygone age of great prosperity, and attest the truth of the Greek accounts of hundreds of large cities in the upper Punjab, and a country teeming with population.

Bhera.—Town and municipality in Sháhpur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Sháhpur *tahsíl*. Lat. 32° 29′ N., long. 72° 57′ E. Population (1881) 15,165, namely, 9153 Muhammadans, 5746 Hindus, 260 Sikhs, and 6 Jains. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1880–81 of £1151; expenditure, £1258. It lies on the left bank of the river Jhelum (Jehlam), and is the largest and most thriving commercial town in the District. The original city lay on

the left bank, and possessed considerable importance, as it purchased safety during Bábar's invasion by a present of 2 *lákhs* of rupees (£20,000), but was afterwards destroyed by hill tribes. The remaining ruins, known as Jobnáthnagar, are identified by General Cunningham with the capital of Sopheites, contemporary of Alexander the Great. The new town was founded about 1540, round a fine mosque and tomb of a Muhammadan saint. The mosque has lately been restored. Centre of a *mahál* under Akbar; plundered and laid waste by Ahmad Sháh's general, Nur-ud-dín, in 1757; re-populated by the Sikh chieftains of the Bhangi confederacy; greatly improved under British rule. *Tahsílí* and police station, school, dispensary, town-hall. Large trade in cotton during the American war, since somewhat declined. Exports of *ghí* and country cloth; flourishing manufacture of cotton cloth, *ponkhas*, soap, coarse felt, iron goods, wood-carving, brass-work, knife handles, and glove-boxes mounted in jade, swords and cutlery generally, and country felt rugs (*namdas*); imports of rice, sugar, *gúr*, European piece-goods, Bokhárá silk, ermine furs, Russian china ware, coins, and silver and gold ornaments.

Bheraghát.—Village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces, on the banks of the Narbadá (Nerbudda); remarkable for the scenery in its neighbourhood. The river winds in a crystal stream between perpendicular rocks of magnesian limestone, popularly known as the 'Marble Rocks,' 120 feet high, which appear to meet overhead, and in one part approach so closely that the natives call the pass the 'monkey's leap.' By moonlight, the views are specially fine, and the place is much visited by travellers. Indra is said to have made this channel for the waters of the pent-up stream, and the footprints left upon the rock by the elephant of the god still receive adoration. On one of the conical hills in the neighbourhood stands a Hindu temple, commanding a magnificent prospect. Woods cover the hill except on one side, where steps lined with masonry lead to the shrine, which is surrounded by a circular cloister ornamented with sculptures of many of the Hindu gods, particularly of Siva. The Muhammadans have injured many of the images. According to tradition, the iconoclasts were a portion of Aurangzeb's army encamped near Sangrámpur. Some rude excavations in the neighbourhood once afforded a habitation to ascetics. A fair for religious purposes is held every November. Bheraghát and the 'Marble Rocks' are situated about 12 miles south-west of Jabalpur town, and 3 miles from the railway station of Mírganj on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. There are two *dák* bungalows (rest-houses).

Bheren.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Bargarh *tahsíl*, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 20 square miles; number of villages, 29; occupied houses, 2212; population (1881) 9622, namely, 4780 males and 4842 females.

Bherí.—Petty State or *jagír* in Bundelkhand, Central India Agency. —*See* BERI.

Bhetárgáon.—Town in *tahsíl* Dalmau, Rái Bareli District, Oudh. Situated 12 miles from Rái Bareli town, on the road to Cawnpur. Population (1881) 4226. Bi-weekly market. Annual fair in honour of the goddess Anandá Deví, the tutelary deity of the place, attended by about 5000 persons. Government school.

Bhián.—Village in the Sehwán Sub-division of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Distant 23 miles north of Kotri. Police station and staging bungalow. No particular trade or manufactures.

Bhidanwála.—Village in Sirhind, Punjab. Lat. 31° 10′ N., long. 75° E. Situated on the bank of a large offset of the Sutlej (Satlaj), issuing from that river a short distance below its junction with the Beas (Biás).

Bhikorái.—Village in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 71° 50′ E. On the route from Pokharan to Balmer, 32 miles south of the former. About 100 houses; population chiefly Chauhán Rájputs.

Bhíl Tribes, The.—A pre-Aryan race inhabiting the Vindhyá, Sátpurá, and Sátmálá or Ajanta Hills. The Bhíls were apparently the chief of the large group of tribes that at one time held most of the country now distributed among the Provinces of Mewár, Málwa, Khándesh, and Gujarát. Colonel Tod states that the earliest people of Mewár were Bhíls, and Hamilton mentions that the Bhíls were specially strong in the south of Málwa. Ousted by later invaders from the richest of their old possessions, the Bhíls still hold (to the number of three-quarters of a million) the wilder and outlying of the tracts named above, in the Vindhyá, Sátpurá, and Sátmálá or Ajanta Hills. They do not pass east into the Gond country, nor south into the Konkan. Bishop Caldwell is of opinion that the Bhíls belong to the family of pre-Aryan races, who, like the Kols and Santáls, entered India from the north-east. The popular legend of the origin of the Bhíls is that they are descended from Mahádeo, who had intercourse with a female he met in the woods, and by her had many children. One of them, ugly and vicious, killed his father's bull, and was banished to the mountains and forests. His descendants have since that time been called Bhíls or outcastes. The name Bhíl is, however, believed to be derived from the Dravidian 'Billú,' a bow.

In many States of Rájputána, Málwa, and Gujarát, when a Rájput chief succeeds, his brow is marked by blood taken from the thumb or the toe of a Bhíl. The Rájputs say that this blood-mark is a sign of Bhíl allegiance, but it seems to be a relic of Bhíl power. The Bhíls are very persistent in keeping alive this practice. The

right of giving the blood is claimed by certain families, and the belief that the man from whose veins it flows dies within a year fails to damp their zeal for this usage. The Rájputs, on the other hand, would gladly let the practice die, as they say that they shrink from the application of this impure Bhíl blood. The true ground of their dislike to the ceremony is probably due to the quasi-acknowledgment which it conveys of their need of investiture by an older and conquered race.

The Bhíls, although grouped in distinct classes, are one people. The Mughals (1600) found them hard-working and loyal subjects, and under the Delhi emperors they seem to have continued quiet and orderly. But during the 18th century, in the disturbances that marked the transfer of power from the Mughals to the Maráthás, they asserted their independence; and the Maráthás, failing to bring them to order, treated them as outlaws, and permitted their lowest officers to take their lives without trial. A Bhíl caught in a disturbed part of the country was, without inquiry, flogged and hanged. Torture was freely used. Exposed to the sun, with his nose slit and his ears shaved from his head, the Bhíl was burnt to death chained to a red-hot iron seat. Hundreds were thrown over a high cliff near Antúr, and large bodies of them, assembled under a promise of pardon, were beheaded or blown from guns. Their women were mutilated or smothered by smoke, and their children dashed to death against the stones. Cruelties like these drove the Bhíls to desperation. They took refuge in the rocky fastnesses of the Western Vindhyás and the Sátpurás, or along the forest-covered banks of the Mahi, the Narbadá, and the Tápti. In these tracts, protected by the nature of the country, they have since dwelt.

The Bhíls, roving and restless by disposition, and skilful hunters by necessity, long defied their oppressors. Superstitious in the extreme, and possessing little attachment to fixed spots, their hive-like habitations on the isolated knolls were abandoned without regret on the occurrence of any evil omen. Addicted to bouts of drinking, they burst forth in frenzied bands on the more settled country, and were a scourge to the lowlands. Ten thousand of the Gáekwár's troops, sent for the purpose of their coercion, were defeated and driven with disgrace from their fastnesses. After an unsuccessful attempt on the part of the British in 1818 to bring them to order by force, kinder measures were resorted to. A large body of the Bhíls were thus reclaimed. They took service under our officers, and formed a Bhíl corps which in 1827 numbered 600 men. This corps stormed the fastnesses of the unreformed sections of the race, seized their leaders, and reduced the whole of the clans to habits of order. By the personal influence of some of their early officers, Robertson, Ovans, and Outram,

many Bhíls settled down, as members of the police or as husbandmen, into regular industry. At the same time, though peace was established, and has since on the whole prevailed, any local disturbance has sufficed to re-awaken in some of the Bhil tribes their old love of plunder.

The Bhíl has made little advance in the standards of civilization or comfort. Ignorance, carelessness, and love of liquor have, especially in Western Khándesh, sunk many of the race deep in debt to the astute Hindus. The machinery of the law courts is worked by the Hindu usurer to keep his Bhíl debtors in his power; and notwithstanding the great rise in the value of their labour, many of the Bhíls toil on in practical bondage to their creditors. They are fed between seed-time and harvest, and they receive an occasional turban or cotton cloth. In other respects they are not much better off than in the old times of oppression. Even as small landholders, their carelessness and want of skill prevent their rise in the social scale. As labourers, although physically strong and efficient workers when they please, their idleness and fitfulness stand in the way of their earning high wages.

How far the modern Bhíl has changed from the original Bhíl it is hard to say. The lowland Bhíls, and when well fed many hill Bhíls also, become equal in size and appearance to the low-class Hindus. In Poona they are superior in stature, appearance, and intelligence to the Sátpurás. This seems to show that the stunted, stupid, and savage Bhíls of Khándesh, Gujarát, Rájputána, and Central India have, either from marriage with older and lower races, or from exposure and want of food, suffered both in mind and body. The wild woodsman of the Sátpurás is dark, short, but well made, active and hardy, with high cheekbones, wide nostrils, and in some cases coarse, almost African features. Among the southern and western tribes, who probably more nearly represent the original type of Bhíl, are many well-built and not a few tall, handsome men, with regular features and wavy hair. The lowland Bhíls are now scarcely to be distinguished from the local low-class Hindus.

The Bhíls of the present day may conveniently be arranged under three groups, namely—(1) those of the plains, (2) those of the hills and forests, and (3) the mixed tribes. The first are found in small numbers in almost all the villages of Central and South Khándesh. The second have their settlements in the Vindhyás, the Sátpurás, the Sahyádris, the Bardás, and the Dangs. The mixed tribes are—(1) the Bhílálás (half Bhíl and half Rájput or Kumbí), found in the Eastern Sátpurás; (2) the Tadvís, and (3) the Nirdhís, both found in the Sátmálás and Eastern Sátpurás. The two last-named sections of the race are half Bhíl and half Musalmán. The hill Bhíls have seldom any clothing except a strip of cotton round their loins. Their women

wear a coarse tattered robe. When they cannot get grain, they feed on wild roots and fruits, on several kinds of vermin, on animals that have died a natural death, and probably in remote places on the flesh of the cow. The lowland Bhíls wear a turban, a coat, and waistcloth; their women a robe with or without a bodice. Both the men and women wear brass or silver ear-rings and anklets. They are in many respects Hinduized, and now constitute a low caste of the Hindu community. They give caste dinners at births, betrothals, marriages, and deaths, and are particular as to what they eat. The opening of the Rájkumar College at Indore now affords a new chance to the young Bhíl chiefs, several of whom show fair promise.

Lieutenant Mildmay remarks: 'In villages inhabited by cultivators, there are seldom more than two or three families of Bhíls who have originally owed their settlement to a small grant of land given to one of their number entertained as a *mánkar* or tracer of thieves, whose duty, in consideration of his holding this land rent-free, and of levying a small due on the crops of cultivators, is both to track robbers from his own village, and to take up any such track brought by the *mánkar* of any neighbouring village, and either to produce the robber or carry the trace beyond his own boundary, in default of which he or the Bhúmia who may be responsible for the village is held answerable for the stolen property.

'There are some oaths and ceremonies which no Bhíl will venture to break. One is swearing by the dog; the Bhíl, placing his hand on the head of the dog, prays that if what he says be not true, the curse of the dog may fall upon him. Another oath is sworn by taking a small quantity of *joár* into the hand and holding it up, praying that the grain he eats may bring curses and destruction on him, should he speak aught but truth. A third oath is sworn by placing the hand on the head of his son. In many instances when these oaths are made use of, written agreements are given by which the person swearing agrees that, should any serious or extraordinary injury happen to himself or his family within a certain time, he will consent to be held guilty, or to have stated a falsehood.

'They believe strongly in witchcraft, and also in the power of the *Burwás* or witchfinders to point out who may be the witch who has inflicted any injury on them. Should any of their relations die without apparent cause, they consult the *Burwá*, who, generally a shrewd, clever fellow, manages to find out beforehand what ugly, disagreeable old woman may live in the enquirer's village, and then he proceeds, apparently oracularly, to describe this old witch. Witches with the Bhíls are tried much in the same way that they were in civilized England two centuries ago. They place the woman in one side of a bullock's pack sack, and three dry cakes of cow-dung in the other, and

throw her into the water, when, if she sink, she is no witch, but if she swim she is. Another mode is by rubbing red pepper in the eyes, which in a witch has no power to produce tears.

'Their method of settling disputes is by the ceremony of *Chák Phirna*, or the assemblage of all the Bhíls of the two villages to which the disputants belong. The matter is then discussed; and when they are agreed as to the sentence to be passed, one party pours a quantity of spirits into the hand of his opponent, who, after praying that if he ever quarrels again on the point now settled, the curse of the deity Mátá or small-pox may fall upon him, drinks it off; the other party then goes through the same ceremony.'

The Bhíláiá is a cross between a Bhíl and Rájput. Of this class are all the Bhíl chiefs of the Vindhyá range. They do not intermarry with Bhíls, but only in their own caste. Their marriage ceremonies comprise the agreement, the betrothal, and the wedding. The ceremony of agreement consists of an interchange of visits by members of the bride's and bridegroom's family, during which the necessary liquor for the discussion of the preliminaries is drunk. The betrothal and wedding are performed by the bride and bridegroom being painted over with turmeric ten days before the wedding, both parties eating together, and the bridegroom being conveyed on horseback to the bride's house, where a *mandap* or kind of shed is put up, which he first enters. The bride is then brought out to him, and they both march seven times round a burnt-offering of oil-seed and barley, their clothes being tied together. The night is spent in drinking and dancing, and in the morning the bridegroom takes the bride to his own house. The dowry given by the bridegroom is Rs. 16½, or 33s., while the bride contributes her jewels. The Bhílálá women do not make second marriages, although the Bhíl women may. If the husband die, his brother alone may take the widow, and all the property and children. But the brother-in-law sometimes gives her away, without consulting her wishes, to another man for a bride; an irregularity which proves a fruitful source of quarrel. Should a widow have no offspring, her husband's property is divided among his relations.

Bhíl marriages differ somewhat from those of Bhílálás, and are less formal. With them marriages take place at the age of 12 years, and there is no betrothal. The Bhíls are very suspicious of their wives. Bhíl women who leave their husbands subject the man with whom they run away to a fine of twelve cattle in the case of a first marriage; six in the case of a second. In the case of running away with a virgin, the fine is only three. The Bhíls bury boys and virgins and those who have died of small-pox. All others are burnt; the funeral ceremonies being performed by the Gosain Ráwals, who are generally presented with a bullock for their part in the work.

The Bhíls, according to the Census of 1881, number in the

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Bombay Presidency,	172,295	169,339	341,634
Rájputána,	Unknown.		166,343
Central India,	111,256	105,766	217,022
Total,			724,999

—*See* also BHILWARA, DANGS, etc.

Bhiláuri (*Bhiláudi*).—Town in the Tásgáon Sub-division, Satára District, Bombay Presidency; prettily situated on the left bank of the river Kistna (Krishna), facing the village of Akalkhop, 9 miles west of Tásgáon. Lat. 16° 59′ 30″ N., long. 74° 30′ 45″ E.; population (1881) 6569, namely, Hindus, 5580; Muhammadans, 413; and Jains, 576; area of town site, 107 acres.

Bhíleng, or **Bheeleng**.—River and town in Shwe-gyin District, British Burma.—*See* BILIN.

Bhíleng-kyaik-hto. — Township in Shwe-gyin District, British Burma.—*See* BILIN-KYAIK-TO.

Bhílgarh.—Town in Gwalior territory, Central India. Population (1881) 6427, namely, Hindus, 5440; and Muhammadans, 987.

Bhillang.—A feeder of the Bhágírathí river. Rises in lat. 30° 46′ N. long. 78° 55′ E., in Garhwál, North-Western Provinces, and flowing south-west for 50 miles, joins the Bhágírathí in lat. 30° 23′ N., long. 78° 31′ E. It is considered sacred by the Hindus, and abounds with fish called, by Moorcroft, 'trout.'

Bhilolpur (*Bahlolpur*).—Town in Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat 30° 54′ N., long. 76° 21′ E.; population (1881) 2842. Only noticeable as being one of the oldest towns in the District. Municipal income in 1880–81, £136; expenditure, £116.

Bhiloria. — Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 9 square miles, with 11 villages; estimated revenue £1200, of which £242 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár. The chief holds the title of Thákur. The land is much broken up by ravines; but the soil is mostly a rich black loam, yielding the better class of crops, cotton, millet, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and rice.

Bhilsa.—Revenue District and fortified town in Gwalior State, Central India. The town is situated 26 miles north-east of Bhopál, on the right or eastern bank of the river Betwá, in lat. 23° 31′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 50′ 39″ E., and is perched on a rock 1546 feet above sea-level, and has a fort enclosed by a castellated stone wall, and surrounded by a ditch; the suburb outside has some spacious streets containing good houses. Population (1881) 7070, namely, Hindus, 5981; Muhammadans, 1077; and 'others,' 12. In the fort lies an old gun, 19½ feet in length, with a bore of 10 inches, said to have been made

by order of the Emperor Jahángír. It is described as being of 'elegant proportions and highly ornamented; made of the finest brass, and cast with the appearance of a network over it, with large rings held by dolphins.' After changing hands several times, Bhilsa was finally, in 1570, incorporated with the Empire of Delhi by Akbar. The tobacco produced in the vicinity of the town is considered the finest in India. The very best sort, however, is produced in a space not exceeding three acres, and the goodness of the tobacco in this single spot is no doubt owing to the very careful and high cultivation applied. The District produces excellent wheat, and is about to be opened up by the construction of a railway from Bhopál to Lálitpur. Bhilsa is now chiefly noteworthy as a famous place of Hindu pilgrimage to the temples, picturesquely situated in the bed of the Betwá river, and as giving its name to the remarkable and interesting series of Buddhist topes found in its neighbourhood. Mr. Fergusson describes this series as 'the most extensive, and, taking it altogether, perhaps the most interesting, group of topes in India,' and devotes half of his work on *Tree and Serpent Worship*, and 45 plates, besides woodcuts, to the illustration of the great tope at SANCHI, about 5½ miles distant. He thus describes (*History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, pp. 61 sqq.) the entire group:—

'There [near Bhilsa], within a district not exceeding ten miles east and west and six north and south, are five or six groups of topes, containing altogether between 25 and 30 individual examples. The principal of these, known as the Great Tope at Sánchi, in the Bhopál State, has been frequently described; the smaller ones are known from General Cunningham's descriptions only (*Bhilsa Topes, or Buddhist Monuments in Central India*); but altogether they have excited so much attention that they are perhaps better known than any group in India. We are not, however, perhaps justified in assuming, from the greater extent of this group as now existing, that it possessed the same pre-eminence in Buddhist times. If we could now see the topes that once adorned any of the great Buddhist sites in the Doáb or in Behár, the Bhilsa group might sink into insignificance. It may only be that, situated in a remote and thinly-peopled part of India, they have not been exposed to the destructive energy of opposing sects of the Hindu religion, and the bigoted Moslem has not wanted their materials for the erection of his mosques. They consequently remain to us, while it may be that nobler and more extensive groups of monuments have been swept from the face of the earth.' Little that is certain seems to be known regarding the object and history of the topes; but an examination of the largest of them at SANCHI shows that it is a *stupa* and not a *daghoba*—that is to say, a monument raised to mark some sacred spot, or to commemorate some event, and not a shrine contain-

ing a relic. There is no reason to suppose that any *stupas* were raised before Asoka's time (B.C. 250), so that the earliest possible date of the Sánchi tope is fixed with some precision. Two of the smaller topes on the same platform (known as Nos. 2 and 3) contain relics of undoubted historical character, for a description of which the reader is referred to Mr. Fergusson's valuable work (*loc. cit.*). Much injury has been done to these relics by the reckless explorations of archæologists, but their restoration has been carefully undertaken, and carried out in a great measure.

'Besides the group at Sánchi,' continued Mr. Fergusson, 'which comprises six or seven topes, there is at Sonári, 6 miles distant, another group of eight topes. Two of these are important structures, enclosed in square courtyards; and one of them has yielded numerous relics to the explorer. At Sátdhára, 3 miles farther on, is a great tope 101 feet in diameter, which, like that at Sánchi, seems to have been a *stupa* and has yielded no relics. No. 2, however, though only 24 feet in diameter, was found to contain relics of Sariputra and Moggalána, like No. 3 at Sánchi. Besides these there are several others, all small and very much ruined. The most numerous group, however, is situated at Bhojpur, 7 miles from Sánchi, where 37 distinct topes are grouped together on various platforms. The largest is 66 feet in diameter; but No. 2 is described as one of the most perfect in the neighbourhood, and, like several others in this group, one which contained important relics. At Andhar, about 5 miles west of Bhojpur, is a fine group of three small but very interesting topes. With those above enumerated, this makes up about sixty distinct and separate topes in this small district, which certainly was not one of the most important in India in a religious point of view, and consequently was probably surpassed by many, not only in the number but in the splendour of their religious edifices.'

Mr. Fergusson assigns the topes to the three centuries and a half between 250 B.C. and the first century of our era.

Bhílú-Gywon.—Island at the mouth of the Salwín river, British Burma.—*See* BILU-GYWON.

Bhílwára (*Bheelwara*).—A tract of country in Central India occupied by a collection of Native States (known as the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency), under the political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India. Surrounded on all sides by Native States of Central India, principally those of Holkar and Sindhia, Bhílwára consists chiefly of the wild hilly tracts of the Vindhyá range north of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, inhabited principally by Bhíls. It includes the following 17 States, together with certain outlying portions of Indore and Gwalior: — DHAR, BAKHTGARH, JHABUA, ALI-RAJPUR, JOBAT, KATIWARA, RATANMAL, MATHWAR, DAHI, NIMKHERA, BARA-BARKHERA,

CHOTA-BARKHERA, KACCHI-BARODA, DHOTRA, MULTHAN, DHANGAON, and KALI-BAORI. The head-quarters of this Agency are at Sardarpur. Besides the above, there was another political agency in the same part of Central India, known as the Deputy Bhíl Agency, comprising the following 8 States:—BARWANI, JAMNIA, RAJGARH, KOTHIDE, GARHI, CHOTA-KASRAWAD, CHIKTIABAR, and BHARUDPURA, besides the British District of Mánpur, Sindhia's *parganá* of Bagaud, and Holkar's districts of Hásilpur in Málwá, and Khargáon, Mahesar, Bárwa, Dhárgáon, Sindwa, and Bamangáon in Nimár. The Deputy Bhíl Agency has now ceased to exist, having being merged into the Bhíl Agency. The territory comprised in Bhílwára lies to the north of the Bombay Bhíl States in Khándesh District, which are noticed under DANG STATES. —*See* also BHIL TRIBE.

Bhílwára.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Situated on the Nimach and Nasírábád road, 72 miles distant from each place. Contains some 2000 houses, mostly of traders and shopkeepers. This town, Tod relates, was completely deserted at the close of the Pindárí war in 1818; but in more peaceful times it rapidly rose from ruin, and in a few months contained 1200 houses. It is a station on the Holkar and Sindhia-Nímach State Railway, and is considered the second emporium of trade in Udaipur. It is noted for the excellence and durability of its tinning work.

Bhímá.—River in the Bombay Presidency, rising in lat. 19° 4′ 30″ N., long. 73° 34′ 30″ E., at the village of Bhímáshankar, situated on the Sahyádri Hills in the Kher Sub-division of Poona (Puna) District; flowing south-east through the Districts of Poona, Ahmadnagar, Sholápur, and Kaládgi. After forming the north-eastern boundary of the Southern Maráthá Country, it falls into the Kistna.

Bhímáganní.—The pass connecting Bellary District, Madras Presidency, on the north-east with the Sandúr State. Lat. 15° 7′ N., long. 76° 3′ E. The village of Yettinhatti of Sandúr is situated at the entrance to this pass, through which runs the main road from Bellary to Rámandrúg.—*See* RAMANDRUG.

Bhímar.—Village in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 19′ N., long. 71° 33′ E.; on the route from Pokharan to Balmer, 56 miles north of the latter. Inhabited chiefly by Chauhán Rájputs.

Bhímávaram.—*Táluk* in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. Area, 321 square miles, containing 139 villages, with 17,092 houses; population (1881) 108,599, being 53,851 males and 54,748 females; revenue, £48,130. The *táluk* possesses abundant means of irrigation, the chief aqueducts being the Undi, the Velpur, the Chinna Káparam, Gosta *nadi*, and Akuvídu Canals. Numerous minor channels intersect the *táluk* in all directions. The principal towns are Viravásaram, with 5257 inhabitants; Bhímávaram, 2205; Undi, 2445; Akuvídu, 2368;

Gunupúdi, 1620. Rice forms the staple product and the main item in the trade.

Bhímávaram.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency; adjoins the Shrotriem of Singara-áyakonda, and granted in support of the Singara-áyakonda shrine. The ancient Vaishnav temple on a neighbouring hill is said to have been founded by Agastya-Malái Muní; and on the same hill is a cave temple, the entrance to which is blocked by a large stone image, which the temple guardians will not allow to be removed. The annual festival in honour of Vishnu, known as Nárasinhaswámi, is celebrated in April. Population (1881) 1552, namely, Hindus, 1512; Muhammadans, 17; and Christians, 23; inhabiting 316 houses.

Bhímbándh.—Hot springs in Monghyr District, Bengal; about 16 miles south of Rishikund. Lat. 25° 4′ N., long. 86° 27′ E. The springs, which are the finest in the District, issue from the eastern base of the Maháдeo Hill, so near the Man river that they may be considered one of its sources. The hot water issues from four different places at some distance from each other, springing at each place from numerous crevices of the rock. The temperature of the water varies from 144° to 150° F. in the month of March. It is limpid and tasteless, but contains earthy matter, the stones through which the hottest spring bubbles up being encrusted with a deposit resembling calcareous tufa.

Bhímbar.—Torrent in Gujarát District, Punjab. Rises in the second Himálayan range, drains a considerable valley within the mountain region, passes round the Pabbi Hills, runs due south for 25 miles, and fertilizes a low fringe of land upon its banks. Four miles north-west of Gujarát it loses itself in the surface of the country, moistening and enriching the surrounding plain; it collects again near the village of Hariálwálá, and runs north-west until it reaches the Jalália *nalá*, a branch of the Chenáb. An unmanageable stream during the rains, but completely dry in the winter months, leaving its bed a broad waste of sand. Fordable at all points, except for some hours after heavy rains in the hills.

Bhím Ghorá.—A place of Hindu pilgrimage in Sahéranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 58′ N., long. 78° 14′ E. In a small recess of the mountain bounding the Dehra Dún on the south, and in a perpendicular rock about 350 feet high, is a *kund* or sacred pool supplied with water from a small branch of the Ganges; and above the pool an excavation in the rock, about 5 feet square, occupied by a *fakír*. According to the legend, Bhíma was stationed at this point to prevent the Ganges from taking a different course, and the small cave referred to is said to have been made by the kick of the horse on which he was mounted. Pilgrims bathe in this pool, the waters of which are supposed

to have the power of cleansing from sin. A small temple has recently been built into the rock, from which flights of steps lead down to the sacred pool.

Bhím-láth.—A small Gond village in Bálághát District, Central Provinces, situated on the Bangar river about 64 miles due east of Seoní town. Near the village is a curious stone pillar without inscription, lying on the ground in a grove of mango trees, said by the natives to be the *láth* or club of Rájá Bhíma. The village is also noted for having within its borders one of the finest banian trees in the Central Provinces.

Bhimora.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 12 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Revenue, £813; total tribute, £37, of which £31 is paid to the British Government, and £6 to the Náwab of Junágarh. Bhimora town is in lat. 22° N., long. 71° 16′ E.

Bhím Tál.—Small lake in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, lying among the lower ranges of the Himálayas. Height above sea-level, 4500 feet; dimensions, 5580 feet in length by 1490 in breadth; greatest depth, 87 feet. Lat. 29° 19′ N., long. 79° 41′ E. Picturesquely situated in a little mountain valley, surrounded by hills on three sides. Its outlet is through a torrent which ultimately feeds the Rámgangá river.

Bhimthádi.—Sub-division of Poona (Puna) District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1037 square miles; contains 1 town and 128 villages. Population (1881) 110,428 persons, or 55,992 males and 54,436 females. Hindus number 105,192; Muhammadans, 3569; and 'others,' 1667.

Bhínal.—Town in Ajmere District, Ajmere-Merwára Division, Rájputána. Estimated population, 3403 souls. Distant from Ajmere 32 miles. Chief town of the *parganá*, and the residence of the Rájá of Bhínal, the principal *Istimrárdár* in the District. Water supply good. Post-office.

Bhind.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India. Lat. 26° 33′ 25″ N., long. 78° 50′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 7412, namely, Hindus, 5975; Muhammadans, 1022; and 'others,' 415. On the route from Etáwah to Gwalior fort, 29 miles south-west of the former, and 54 miles north-east of the latter. It was formerly populous, and possessed a fort with a double rampart; but the whole place is now much decayed.

Bhindar.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 6522, namely, Hindus, 5692; and Muhammadans, 830. Situated about 30 miles to the east-south-east of the capital. The town is walled and surrounded by a wet ditch. A first-class noble of the State, owning 90 villages, resides here. His palace is on the western side.

Bhinga.—*Parganá* in Bahraich District, Oudh; bounded on the

north by Nepál State and Tulsipur *parganá*, on the east by Durgápur, on the south by Ikauna and Bahraich *parganás*, and on the west by Charda *parganá*. Formerly comprised partly in Bahraich and partly in the *tarái parganás* of Dangdún and Behrá. In 1483 A.D., Dangdún was held by a hill Rájá, named Udatt Singh; and Bherá was then probably under the sway of Rájá Sangrám Sáh, who held the neighbouring *parganá* of Rájhát. The cis-Rápti tract was held by the Ikauna Rájá. Between this date and 1650, the Ikauna chief had extended his sway across the Ráptí; and in the time of Sháh Jahán he owned 92 villages in Dangdún. Part of these, and probably the Bherá villages also, were held by a cadet of the house; but the estate, which was always open to the raids of the Banjáras, was troublesome to manage, and the *tálukdár*, who was connected with the Gonda family by marriage, yielded his rights in favour of Bhawání Singh Bisen, younger son of the Gonda Rájá. The present *tálukdár* is sixth in descent from Bhawání Singh. The Maháráját of Balrámpur also possesses a good deal of land in the *parganá*. Bisected by the river Ráptí from north-west to south-east, it has well-defined physical features. The basin of the Ráptí, and its affluent the Bhaklá, embrace a *doáb* of unusually rich alluvial soil. Skirting the north of this tract is a belt of reserved forest about 4 miles wide, which once contained some fine *sál* timber, but has now little wood of value. North of this again is a tract of low *tarái* land bordering the forest which lies along the lower Himálayan range, and forming the finest rice-producing ground in Bahraich District. In the southern portion of the *parganá*, wheat and Indian corn are the staples. Irrigation is hardly required. Of a total area of 247 square miles, 140 are returned as under cultivation, 28 as cultivable waste, and 61 as reserved forest. Population (1881) 86,927, namely, 44,981 males and 41,946 females. Number of villages or towns, 156. District roads from Bhinga town to Bahraich, Nánpárá, and Ikauna. Little trade beyond export of rice, and a small amount of inferior timber. Five villages contain schools; two post-offices.

Bhinga.—Chief place of *parganá* of same name in Bahraich District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Ráptí, 24 miles north-east of Bahraich town. Lat. 27° 42′ N., long. 81° 57′ 26″ E. Founded about 300 years ago by one of the Rájás of Ikauna, and about 150 years afterwards made over, together with the *parganá*, to a younger son of the Rájá of Gonda, whose descendant still has his residence in the town. Population (1881) 318, or, including surrounding hamlets, 4895. School and dispensary maintained by the Rájá; police station; post-office.

Bhingár.—Town in Ahmadnagar Sub-division, Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 6′ N., long. 74° 49′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 5106, namely, Hindus, 4776; Muhammadans, 314; and Jains, 16; area of town site, 39 acres. Municipal revenue (1880–81), £308;

rate of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head of population within municipal limits; municipal expenditure, £275.

Bhiri.—Village in the south-west of Wardhá District, Central Provinces, about 20 miles from Wardhá town, noted for its annual fair lasting for 8 days, held on the occasion of the Hindu festival of Janma Ashtami, celebrating the birth of Krishna. Village school; weekly market.

Bhiria.—Town in the Naushágro *táluk*, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Distant 8 miles north-east from Naushágro. Lat. 26° 55′ N., long. 68° 14′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 2488, mainly agricultural. Municipal revenue in 1880–81, £160; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head of population within municipal limits; expenditure, £158. Market, school, and *dharmsála*.

Bhisi.—Town in Warorá *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces, situated 11 miles north of Chimúr town. Population (1881) 3257, namely, Hindus, 2952; Muhammadans, 151; Jains, 7; aboriginal tribes, 147. Handsomely carved modern temple; school; police outpost station.

Bhit Sháh.—A town in Hála *táluk*, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. The Muhammadans belong chiefly to the Wasand, Sand, Khaskeli, and Bagrá tribes—among them some families of Pírs of considerable local repute; the Hindus are chiefly Lohános. Founded in 1727 by Sháh Abdul Latíf, in whose honour an annual fair is held here, largely attended by Muhammadans. Some trade in food-grains and cotton.

Bhita Sarkhandí.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated about 2 miles east of the Murhá river, close to the frontier of Nepál, with which State a considerable trade is conducted in grain, cloth, and salt. Lat. 26° 37′ N., long. 85° 52′ E.

Bhitauli.—*Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated between the Kauriála and the Chauka rivers, and adjoining Rámnagar *parganá*. A Raikwár *parganá*, confiscated for the rebellion of its owner during the Mutiny, and bestowed upon the Mahárájá of Kápúrthala, who is the present possessor. Area, 62 square miles, of which 32 are cultivated; Government land revenue demand, £926, or at the rate of 8¼d. per arable acre, the lightest assessment in Oudh; population (1881) 22,839, namely, 12,196 males and 10,643 females; number of villages or towns, 41.

Bhitauli.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 12 miles east of Purwa, close to the river Sai. Population (1881) 4453, namely, Hindus, 4227 (of whom more than one-half are Rájputs); and Muhammadans, 226. Alleged to have been founded about 600 years ago by two Káyasths. Pleasantly situated among groves of mango trees.

Bhiwandi.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 250 square miles; contains 1 town and 193 villages. Population

(1881) 75,363 persons, namely, 38,763 males and 36,600 females; Hindus number 65,951; Muhammadans, 8815; 'others,' 597. Land revenue (1880) £13,925. The centre of the Sub-division is well peopled and richly tilled, but in the west the country is hilly. Except in the south it is surrounded by the hills which form the watershed of the river Kámvádi, which runs through the Sub-division from north to south. In the west, after the rains, the climate is feverish, but in the other parts it is generally healthy. Water supply is fairly abundant, but far from wholesome. Rice is the chief product.

Bhiwandi.—Chief town of the Bhiwandi Sub-division, Thána District, Bombay Presidency; 29 miles north-east of Bombay, and 10 miles north of Thána. Lat. 19° 18′ 10″ N., long. 73° 6′ E.; population (1881) 13,837, namely, Hindus, 8011; Musalmáns, 5742; Jains, 46; and Pársís, 38. Together with the neighbouring village of Nizámpur, Bhiwandi forms a municipality. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £1403; rate of municipal taxation, 2s. per head of population (15,819) within municipal limits; municipal expenditure in the same year, £1331. Bhiwandi is supplied with water by means of an aqueduct constructed by the inhabitants with the aid of a Government contribution of £500. The population and mercantile importance of this place are on the increase. There is a sub-judge's court, a post-office, and a dispensary.

Bhiwání.—*Tahsíl* of Hissár District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 41′ 30″ to 28° 51′ N., long. 76° 8′ to 76° 16′ E. Area, 585 square miles; population (1881) 103,556, namely, males 55,848, and females 47,708; persons per square mile, 177. Hindus numbered 91,912; Muhammadans, 11,251; Sikhs, 3; 'others,' 390. Land revenue of the *tahsíl*, £7155. Administered by a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 163 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 204.

Bhiwání.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Bhiwání *tahsíl;* distant 37 miles south-east from Hissár town. Lat. 28° 46′ N., long. 76° 11′ 45″ E. Population in 1868, 32,270; in 1880–81, 33,762, namely, Hindus, 29,991; Muhammadans, 3463; Jains, 303; Sikh, 1; 'others,' 4. Number of houses, 5122. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1880–81 of £3464, and an expenditure of £2742. Principal centre of trade and chief town in the District. Bhiwání was an insignificant village at the beginning of the present century; but being chosen in 1817 as the site of a free market, it rose rapidly to importance, and became the *entrepôt* for trade from Bíkaner (Bickaneer), Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere), and Jáipur (Jeypore). The opening of the Rájputána State Railway seriously injured the trade of the town. But the Hissár-Rewári branch of the railway, opened in 1883, passes through Bhiwání, and it is expected that trade will revive. The town stands in an open sandy plain, treeless and uncultivated; good wide

metalled streets; suburbs covered with mud hovels, huddled together without order or arrangement. *Tahsíl*, school, police station, dispensary. Brisk trade in sugar, pepper, spices, metals, salt, and declining mart for cotton cloth. Mercantile firms in Southern India have agents here.

Bhiwání.—Town in Bhartpur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 6480, namely, Hindus, 5056; and Muhammadans, 1424.

Bhiwápur.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; 16 miles south-east of Umrer, on the road to Pauní in Bhandárá. Lat. 20° 46′ N., long. 79° 33′ 30″ E. Population in 1881, 4571, namely, Hindus, 4236; Muhammadans, 163; Jains, 4; aboriginal tribes, 168. An early Gond settlement, founded about A.D. 1550 by Bhímsá, who built the now dilapidated fort, where a blind Gond, Bhímsá's lineal descendant, was living in 1870, with a small pension from Government. Bhiwápur manufactures cloth inferior only to that produced at Nágpur and Umrer. Besides other trade, banking is carried on, chiefly by Agarwálá Márwárís, who have been long settled here. The town, which has a neat and clean appearance, with generally well-built houses, has two good metalled roads, a new school-house, a *sarái* (native inn), and a market-place, with a large public masonry well. Police station.

Bhochan.—Town in the Native State of Cutch (Kachchh), Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 3722, namely, Hindus, 2302; Muhammadans, 335; and Jains, 1085.

Bhogái.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, rising a little south-east of Turá civil station, and flowing in a southerly direction till it falls into the old bed of the Brahmaputra in Maimansingh District.

Bhogarmang.—Mountain valley in Mansahra *tahsíl*, Hazára District, Punjab; situated between 34° 30′ and 34° 48′ 15″ N. lat., and 73° 14′ 15″ and 73° 24′ 30″ E. long., forming the main source of the Siran river, and surrounded by pine-clad hills from 8000 to 13,000 feet in height. Area, 77,418 acres, of which 7563 are cultivated. Population (1881) 9215, chiefly Gújars, with a few Swátis. The inhabitants are dependent for food upon their cattle, of which they possess large herds. Climate cool and pleasant in summer, but very severe in winter.

Bhogdabári.—Town in Rangpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 10,892, namely, Muhammadans, 7760; and Hindus, 3132; area of town site, 9189 acres.

Bhognipur.—South-western *tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the Bhognipur branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 281 square miles, of which 161 are cultivated; population (1881) 88,081; land revenue, £21,145; total Government revenue, £23,680; rental paid by cultivators, £38,246. The Sub-division contains 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 36 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 230.

Bhognipur.—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces,

and head-quarters of Bhognipur *tahsíl*, situated on the Kalpi road, 41 miles from Cawnpur town. Area, 21 acres; population (1881) 1021. The village contains, besides the usual *tahsíli* courts and offices, a first-class police station, imperial post-office, and an encamping ground. It is said to have been founded some three hundred years ago by one Bhogchand, a Káyasth by caste, whose descendants are still proprietors. To him also is ascribed a large tank, known as Bhog Ságar, the water of which is used for irrigation.

Bhográi.—Embankment at the mouth of the SUBARNAREKHA river in Balasor District, Bengal; completed in 1870. An embankment was constructed here by the Maráthás, and afterwards replaced by another built by the British Government. Both of these were constructed too close to the river to allow the free escape of the waters in time of flood, and they were consequently destroyed. The present embankment runs farther back, so as to give sufficient waterway.

Bhoika.—Petty Estate of Jháláwár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £1366; total tribute, £203, 18s., of which £176 is paid to the British Government, and £27, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. A payment of £9, 8s. is in addition made as *Sukri* on account of Ahmadábád.

Bhoja-kheri.—A guaranteed Thákurate of Indore State, under the Indore Agency, Central India.

Bhojawaddar.—Petty Estate of Gohelwár District, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £500; total tribute, £55, of which £41 is paid to the Gáekwár, and £14 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bhojpur.—Town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 57′ N., long. 78° 52′ E.; area, 64 acres; population (1881) 4488, namely, Musalmáns, 3396; and Hindus, 1092. Distant from Moradábád 8 miles north; from the Dhela river 1 mile east. Agricultural centre, of no commercial importance.

Bhojpur.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 35′ 8″ N., long. 84° 9′ 48″ E. Population (1881) 9278, namely, Hindus, 7616; and Muhammadans, 1662. Area of town site, 1114 acres.

Bhombadi.—Township and revenue circle in Taung-ngú District, British Burma.—*See* BHUMMAWADI.

Bhomoráguri (*Bhamráguri*).—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam, 3 miles from Tezpur town. Estimated area, 386·7 acres. Bounded north and west by the hill of the same name.

Bhongáon.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Mainpurí District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the rivers Arind and Isan, between which runs the Cawnpur branch of the Ganges Canal. A section of the Mainpurí division of the Lower Ganges Canal also passes through the *tahsíl*.

Area, 463 square miles, of which 264 are cultivated; population (1881) 204,353; land revenue, £29,729; total Government revenue, £32,256.

Bhongáon.—Town in Mainpurí District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Mainpuri *tahsíl*. Lat. 27° 15′ 30″ N., long. 79° 12′ 45″ E. Distant 9½ miles east from Mainpurí, at the junction of the Agra and Grand Trunk roads. Population (1881) 6778, namely, Hindus, 4534; Muhammadans, 2036; and Jains, 208. The place is merely a collection of straggling hamlets, with little pretensions to rank as a town. The houses generally are built of mud, and the few brick ones are so scattered as to be hardly noticeable. A small municipal income in the shape of a house tax for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Two *bázárs*, *sarái* (native inn), *tahsílí*, police station, good-sized *jhíl* or lake, modern mosque and temple. The latter contains lodgings free to poor travellers, who also receive a daily dole of grain from the owner. The town was founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Bhim Sen, who was cured of leprosy by bathing in the *jhíl*. Bhongáon possessed some importance under the Mughal Emperors, and has a ruined fort on an artificial mound; but its trade has now shifted to towns upon the railway.

Bhoommawadee.—Township in Taung-ngú District, British Burma. —*See* BUMAWADI.

Bhoon-maw.—Pagoda in Tenasserim, British Burma.—*See* BUNMAW.

Bhopál.—Native State in Málwá, in the Bhopál Political Agency of Central India, under the political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India; lying between 22° 32′ and 23° 46′ N. lat., and between 76° 25′ and 78° 50′ E. long.; area, 6873 square miles; estimated revenue, £400,000; population (1881) 954,901, namely, 498,643 males and 456,258 females, or 139 persons to the square mile. Number of large towns, 4; villages, 3006; houses, 184,808; number of persons per occupied house, 5·16. The population by caste is distributed as follows: Hindus, 747,004; Muhammadans, 82,164; Jains, 6022; Christians, 155; Sikhs, 136; Pársís, 2; aboriginal tribes, 119,418. Bounded on the north and west by Sindhia's territory and several petty States of the Central India Agency; east by the British District of Ságar (Saugor); and south by the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and by Holkar's territory of Aimáwar. The ruler is a female and an Afghán of the Mirázái Khel tribe; she succeeded her mother in 1868, and her daughter Sultán Jahán Begam is (1884) the recognised heir to the State.

The Bhopál dynasty was founded by Dost Muhammad, an Afghán in the service of Aurangzeb, who took advantage of the revolutions which followed the death of the Emperor to establish his independent

authority in Bhopál and the neighbouring country. The Bhopál family have always manifested an amicable feeling towards the British Government. In 1778, when General Goddard made his bold march across India, the State of Bhopál was the only Indian power which showed itself friendly; and in 1809, when another British expedition, commanded by General Close, appeared in that part of India, the Nawáb of Bhopál earnestly, but in vain, petitioned to be received under British protection. The Nawáb then allied himself with the Pindárís, and made a most gallant defence against the attempts of Sindhia and Raghují Bhonsla to crush him; their efforts were finally restrained by the intervention of the British power. In 1817, at the commencement of the Pindárí war, the British Government formed a close alliance with Bhopál. It was chiefly by the aid of the Pindárís that Bhopál had been able to defy the attacks of Sindhia and the Rájá of Nágpur; but his connection with these freebooters was distasteful to the Nawáb, and only tolerated on account of his inability to control them. A treaty was made in 1818, by which the British Government guaranteed his possession of the State; and the Nawáb agreed to furnish a contingent of 600 horse and 400 infantry, and received five Districts in Málwá as a reward for his services, and to enable him to maintain the contingent. The Nawáb soon afterwards met his death from a pistol accidentally discharged by a child. His nephew, an infant, was thereupon declared his successor, and betrothed to the infant daughter of the deceased prince. But the widow of the Nawáb, the Kúdsia Begam, wished to keep the State in her own hands, even after the declared heir had resigned his claim to the State and to the hand of the Nawáb's daughter, Sikandar Begam, in favour of his brother Jahángír Muhammad.

After much dissension, lasting through several years, Jahángír Muhammad was restored to power in 1837 by the mediation of the British Government, and installed as Nawáb. On his death in 1844, he was succeeded by his widow, Sikandar Begam, who ruled Bhopál until her death in 1868. She made a name for herself by faithful services to the Government of India during the Mutiny, and by the ability which she displayed in the management of the State. She was succeeded by the present ruler, Sháh Jahán Begam, who is no unworthy successor, and is distinguished by the same loyalty to the British Crown. Her first husband died in 1867, leaving her one daughter, Sultán Jahán Begam. After her husband's death, Sháh Jahán, following the footsteps of her mother, threw aside the restrictions of the *pardah*, conducted business with vigour, and was always accessible. In recognition of her high administrative qualities and her loyalty, she received in 1872 the honour of the Grand Cross of the Star of India. In 1871 she contracted a second marriage with

Maulví Muhammad Sádik Husain, and has resumed the retirement which the *pardah* imposes, but continues to conduct personally the business of all departments of the State. Her Nawáb consort is not outwardly invested with authority. The same honours are paid to her present husband as were enjoyed by his predecessor, and he has received the title of Nawáb. The Sultán Jahán Begam, the present heir, was married in 1874, with the consent of Government, to Ahmad Ali Khán, who is of the same tribe as that to which the Bhopál family belongs (the Mirázái Khel), but he is not a member of the family itself. This lady has two sons and one daughter.

The Begam of Bhopál is entitled to a salute of 19 guns. The force maintained by the State consists of 694 horse, 2200 foot, 14 field and 43 other guns, with 291 artillerymen. In commutation of a contingent of 600 horse and 400 infantry known as the Bhopál battalion, which the State had stipulated to furnish under treaty, Bhopál now pays annually 2 *lákhs* of rupees (say £20,000) in cash. A further payment of £500 is made by the State for the support of the Sehore high school. The contribution of £1200 per annum formerly paid by the State for the construction and repair of roads within its territory was remitted in 1873, on the understanding that the Begam will keep in proper repair the roads already made, and spend a reasonable sum annually in opening up others. In 1875, the amount sanctioned for roads by the Bhopál Darbár was £210 per annum, to which the Begam herself added a donation of 1 *lákh* of rupees (£10,000) and the Kúdsia Begam £2500 per annum. A branch line, called the 'Bhopál State Railway,' leaving the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Itársi station, runs to Bhopál *viâ* Hoshangábád. The cost of this work, fifty *lákhs* of rupees (£500,000), was borne by the Bhopál Government, without a guarantee. The extension of the line from Bhopál to Bhilsa, Jhánsi, and Gwalior, by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, is projected. The British Government has, by a *sanad* of 1862, recognised the right of succession in Bhopál according to Muhammadan law and the customs of the State. The chief has power of life and death in judicial matters; and the territories of Bhopál are beyond the jurisdiction of British courts. An allowance of £1000 a year is made by the British Government as compensation for the loss incurred on the remission of transit duty on all salt passing through the State.

Bhopál.—Principal town of the State of the same name in Central India. Lat. 23° 15′ 35″ N., long. 77° 25′ 56″ E. Height above sea-level, 1670 feet. Surrounded by a masonry wall two miles in circuit, within which is a fort, also of masonry; both in good repair. Outside the town is a *ganj* or trading quarter; and to the south-west, on a large rock, is a fort called Fatehgarh, with a masonry rampart and square towers—the residence of the ruler of the State. South-west of this

fort spreads a fine artificial lake, 4½ miles long and 1½ mile broad; and on the east of the town another 2 miles in length. From these lakes, by the liberality of the Kúdsia Begám, the town is now plentifully supplied with water; the waterworks are in charge of an English engineer, and the water is to be supplied to the people, free, for ever. The Political Agent lives at Sehore, the head-quarters of the Bhopál contingent, 20 miles distant from Bhopál. Distant from Allahábád 325 miles south-west; from Calcutta, *viá* Sambalpur and Nágpur, 790 miles.

Bhopál Agency.—A collection of Native States, under the political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India. Bounded south and east by the Central Provinces, and north and west by various Native States of Central India and Rájputána. Area, about 8719 square miles; estimated population (1881) 1,291,358. The nine States comprising the Agency are BHOPAL, RAJGARH, NARSINHGARH, KURWAI, MAKSUDANGARH, KHILCHIPUR, BASODA, MUHAMMADGARH, and PATHARI, all of which see separately. In addition to the above, the Political Agent whose head-quarters are at Bhopál has also charge of isolated patches of territory belonging to the States of Gwalior, Indore, Tonk, and Dewás. The following guaranteed Thákurates are also included in this Agency, viz. Agra-Barkhera, Dagria, Daria-Kheri, Dhabla-Dhir, Dhabla-Ghosi, Duleta, Hírapur, Jabria, Jhálera, Kamalpur, Kákar-Kheri, Khajúri, Kharsia, Piplia-nagar, Rámgarh, Sutalia, and Tappa.

Bhor.—Native State within the Political Agency of Satára, in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency. Estimated area, 1491 square miles; population (1881) 145,872; number of villages, 486; gross revenue, inclusive of import and export duties, about £46,450. Except in one tract, where the land is level, the country is covered with hills. Three-fourths of the soil is red, the remainder is blue and grey; principal products—rice and *nágli* (Eleusine corocana). Bhor is one of the feudatories of the old Satára *ráj*. The family of the chief are Hindus, Bráhmans by caste, and they hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption; the family follows the rule of primogeniture, and the succession has been maintained by several adoptions. The Chief holds the title of *jágírdár* of Bhor and Pant Sachev, and he ranks in the first class of Deccan *sardárs*. He maintains for other than military purposes a retinue of 535 followers. A tribute of £527, 12s., being the commuted value of elephant subsidy hitherto annually paid to the Chief, is paid to the British Government. There are 25 schools, with 723 pupils.

Bhor. — Chief town of the Bhor State in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency; 25 miles south of Poona (Púna). Lat. 18° 9′ N., long. 73° 53′ 25″ E.

Bhor Ghát.—Pass across the Western Gháts, 40 miles south-east of

Bombay, and about the same distance north-west of Poona (Púna). Lat. 18° 46° 45″ N., long 73° 23′ 30″ E. The carrying of the line of railway up this pass is one of the greatest engineering feats that has been performed in India. The summit is 1831 feet above the level at its base, or 2027 feet above sea-level. The average gradient is 1 in 48. The total length of tunnelling is 2535 yards. There are 8 viaducts, varying from 52 to 168 yards in length, to from 45 to 139 feet high. The total quantity of cuttings was 1,623,102 cubic yards, and of embankments 1,849,934 cubic yards. The maximum height of the embankments is 74 feet. There are 18 bridges of various spans from 7 to 30 feet, and 58 culverts of from 2 to 6 feet span. The estimated cost of the work was £597,222, or an average of £41,188 per mile. It was completed in February 1861, within five years from the date of its commencement. In former times, the Bhor Ghát was considered the key of the Deccan.

In 1804, General Wellesley gave Bombay greater facilities of access to the Deccan by making the Bhor Ghát practicable for artillery, and constructed a good road from the top of the Ghát to Poona (Púna); a good carriage road up the Ghát was not, however, completed until 1830, when it was opened by Sir John Malcolm, then Governor of Bombay. 'On the 10th November 1830,' he wrote, 'I opened the Bhor Ghát, which, though not quite completed, was sufficiently advanced to enable me to drive down with a party of gentlemen in several carriages. It is impossible for me to give a correct idea of this splendid work, which may be said to break down the wall between the Konkan and the Deccan. It will give facility to commerce, be of the greatest of conveniences to troops and travellers, and lessen the expense of European and other articles to all who reside in the Deccan.' Thirty years afterwards another Governor of Bombay, Sir Bartle Frere, at the opening of the Bhor Ghát Railway incline, which reaches by one long lift of 15½ miles the height of 1831 feet, recalled Sir John Malcolm's words and said: 'When I first saw the Ghát some years later, we were very proud in Bombay of our mail cart to Poona (Púna), the first, and at that time, I believe, the only one running in India; but it was some years later before the road was generally used for wheeled carriages. I remember that we met hardly a single cart between Khandálla and Poona; long droves of pack-bullocks had still exclusive possession of the road, and probably more carts now pass up and down the Ghát in a week than were then to be seen on it in a whole year. But the days of mail and bullock carts, as well as of pack-bullocks, are now drawing to a close.' The pack-bullocks, however, still continue to do a thriving business in spite of the completion of the railway.

Mr. E. B. Eastwick, in Murray's *Handbook for Bombay* (London, 1881), thus describes the scenery: 'The beautiful scenery of the

mountains, and the remarkable character of the incline, make the passage of the Bhor Ghát one of the most remarkable stages in Indian travel. In consequence of the reversing station, one portion of the incline is nearly parallel to and much above the other, both being, as it were, terraced 1400 feet directly over the Konkan. In some parts, the line is one half on rock benching, while the other half consists of a very lofty embankment, sometimes retained by a wall of masonry. In other places, on account of the enormous height, embankment is impossible, and while half the width of the railway is on a rock benching, the other half rests on vaulted arches. The viaduct that crosses the Mhau-ki-khind is 163 feet above the footing, and consists of eight semicircular arches of 50 feet span.'

Bhotmárí.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, engal. Lat. 26° 1′ N., long. 89° 13′ E. Chief trade—jute, tobacco, and ginger.

Bhuban.—Range of hills in the southern portion of Cachar District, Assam, forming the watershed between the Bárak and Sonái rivers. They run north and south at a short distance from the eastern boundary of the District. Their height varies from 700 feet to 3000 feet, and their slopes are very precipitous. An annual pilgrimage takes place to the top of the Bhuban hills, reputed to be one of the residences of the god Siva.

Bhúj.—Chief town of the State of Cutch (Kachchh), in political connection with the Bombay Presidency; situated at the base of a fortified hill. Lat. 23° 15′ N., long. 69° 48′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 22,308, including 1647 in cantonments. Hindus numbered 12,506; Muhammadans, 8325; Jains, 1162; Christians, 61; Pársís, 34; and 'others,' 220. Bhúj is a municipal town, and has a post-office, a central jail, a high school, a school of art, a library, and a dispensary. Municipal income (1880-81) £963; expenditure, £1017. The dispensary in the same year treated 11,367 patients, of whom 333 were in-door. The place is chiefly interesting for its archæological monuments, and as having been at an early period dedicated to the snake divinity Bhujánga or Bhújiya. None of the buildings in the town are of earlier date than the middle of the 16th century. The mosque inside the city gate is remarkable for the thickness of its piers, and their closeness to one another—an arrangement by which only a few of the worshippers can ever be within sight of the rest. The town contains the mausoleums of the Ráos of Cutch; and in its neighbourhood are a number of shrines and Muhammadan *dargahs*, of no special importance.

Bhukar. — Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal.—*See* CHANG BHUKAR.

Bhukarheri. — Town in Jánsath *tahsíl*, Muzaffarnagar District,

North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 6195, namely, Hindus, 4795; and Muhammadans, 1400. The village contains a small brick-paved *bázár* and a few good brick houses. There is no external trade, the *bázár* being only sufficient to supply the wants of the neighbouring agricultural communities. Connected by road with Barla and Deoband villages in the north-west, and with Bijnaur District across the Ganges.

Bhullooah (another name for Noákháli).—District in Bengal.—*See* NOAKHALI.

Bhúm (or *Bhím*).—*Ghát* in Madras Presidency.—*See* CHAMARDI.

Bhúm Bakeswar.—Group of hot sulphur springs on the banks of the Bakeswar *nálá*, about 1 mile south of Tántipárá village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 53′ 30″ N., long. 87° 24′ 45″ E. The temperature of the water varies from 128° to 162° F. About 120 cubic feet of water per minute are ejected from the hottest well.

Bhumawadí (*Bhoommawadee*).—Township in Taung-ngú District, Tenasserin, British Burma.—*See* BUMAWADI.

Bhúng Bara.—A tract formerly pertaining to Sind, and granted, together with Sabzalkot, in 1843, to the Nawáb of Baháwalpur, from whose ancestors it had been wrested by the Talpur Mírs, in reward for services rendered to the British during the first Afghán war. It yielded, when under the Talpur administration, an annual revenue of £6000. Lat. of Bhúng town, 28° 24′ N., long. 69° 50′ E.

Bhún-maw (*Bhoon-maw*).—Celebrated pagoda in Talaing Thaunggún village, Tenasserim, British Burma.—*See* BUN-MAW.

Bhupálpatnam.—The most westerly *zamíndárí* or estate in the Bastar State, attached to Chándá District, Central Provinces, lying between 18° 32′ 30″ and 19° 9′ N. lat., and between 80° 18′ and 80° 50′ E. long. Area, about 700 miles; population (1881) 9943, namely, 5098 males and 4845 females; number of villages, 111; occupied houses, 1799. The *zamíndár* is a Gond.

Bhur.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh. One of the largest *parganás* in the Province; in shape an irregular parallelogram, extending from north-west to south-east. Bounded on the north by Pália and Nighásan *parganás*, the Chauka river marking the boundary line; on the east by Srínagar *parganá*; on the south and west by Sháhjahánpur District of the North-Western Provinces. Area, 376 square miles, of which 135 are under cultivation; population (1881) 73,872 Hindus and 8022 Muhammadans—total, 81,894. Bhur possesses one very marked geographical feature, in the shape of a high ridge or plateau, rising suddenly from 20 to 50 feet in height, running parallel to the river Chauka, which at one time flowed just under it. The tract between this ridge and the present course of the river comprises about one-fourth of the entire *parganá*. It is a low-lying plain, known as the *ganiar*,

regularly inundated by the river during the autumn rains, and sparsely inhabited, the villages and hamlets being widely scattered and built upon slightly elevated sites. The upland tract is by far the richest part of the *parganá*, and contains many large and populous villages, some with large masonry buildings, embowered in groves and fruit-trees, and with a dense and apparently prosperous population. Soil excellent, producing luxuriant crops; easy facilities for irrigation.

Bhurtpore.—State in Rájputána.—*See* BHARTPUR.

Bhusáwal.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 571 square miles; contains 3 towns and 185 villages. Population (1881) 96,160, namely, 49,707 males and 46,453 females. Hindus number 85,656; Muhammadans, 7183; 'others,' 3321. To the north-west and along the Táptí the country is flat and monotonous. The south-east of the Sub-division, which stretches into Berar, though flat, is here and there broken by *babúl* groves, especially along the banks of the Purna. The rest is more or less undulating, with straggling hillocks covered with loose stones and boulders. Along the north-east boundary runs a bold range of hills. The Sub-division is scantily wooded, and without the mango groves so abundant in other parts of the District. The tract between the Purna river and the hills from the Suki river to the eastern frontier is ruined by its deadly climate, and repeated attempts to re-colonise deserted villages have failed. Elsewhere, the Sub-division is fairly healthy. There is plenty of surface water. Besides the Táptí river in the north, with its tributaries, the Purna and Wághar, and the minor streams, the Sur and Bhagavatí, there are over 2000 irrigation wells in the Sub-division. Of the two kinds of black soil, the rich alluvial clay found north of Edlábád cannot be surpassed. In the east of Kurha, where it gives place to a rich black loam, it yields the finest crops. The other soils are mostly mixed red and brown. In the north-east the soil is poor, and the waste lands are generally dry and rocky. Along the river-banks are small alluvial plots called *dehlí*. Of 566 miles, the total area surveyed in detail, 10 miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The remainder, according to the revenue survey returns, comprises 288,808 acres, or 81·11 per cent. of cultivable land, of which 171,810 acres were under cultivation; 54,567 acres, or 15·32 per cent. of uncultivable land; and 12,709 acres, or 3·57 per cent. of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. Total land revenue of the Sub-division in 1877-78, £24,350. In 1883, Bhusáwal contained 1 civil and 3 revenue courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 118 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 395.

Bhusáwal.—Chief town of the Sub-division of the same name in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; 64 miles east of Dhúlia. Lat. 21° 1′ 30″ N., long. 75° 47′ E.; population (1881) 9613, of whom

6738 are Hindus, 1687 Musalmáns, 169 Jains, 64 Pársís, and 761 Christians. Sub-judge's court and post-office. Bhusáwal is the head-quarters station of an Assistant Collector and of the chief revenue and police officers of the Sub-division, and the junction station of the Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Until the opening of this railway, it was a petty village in Khándesh. It has since become an important centre, with large railway works, and a considerable European population. About 1200 workmen are regularly employed here, earning about £2800 a month in wages; about 100 of them are European or Eurasian engine-drivers and mechanics. The demand, occasioned by the residence of so many railway employés, has attracted shopkeepers of all descriptions, but their business is confined to the supply of local wants. The railway premises consist of a handsome station, large locomotive workshop, and houses for the employés. The water supply is brought from the Táptí by means of a steam pump and pipe. The water is driven up to a large tank in the gardens near the station, set on the top of a handsome two-storied building, the lower storey being used as a billiard room, and the upper as a railway library. Gardens have been laid out, and tree-planting encouraged to such an extent that Bhusáwal, formerly an open field, is now somewhat overgrown with trees. The village of Bhusáwal is on the opposite side of the line from the railway buildings. There is a large rest-house outside the railway gate for natives, and opposite to it a small hotel for European travellers. To the north of the railway are the Government courts and offices, school-house, *mamlatdár's* office, railway magistrate's office, sub-jail, subordinate judge's court, telegraph office, etc. Bhusáwal town was acquired by the British Government with the rest of the Warangáon (now Bhusáwal) Sub-division in 1861. It was constituted a municipality in May 1882.

Bhután. — An independent State in the Eastern Himálayas, between 26° 45′ and 28° N. lat., and between 89° and about 92° E. long. It is bounded on the north by Tibet; on the east by a tract inhabited by various uncivilised independent mountain tribes; on the south by the British Districts of Goálpárá and Kámrúp of the Province of Assam, and the Bengal District of Jalpaigurí; and on the west by the independent Native State of Sikkim.

Physical Aspects.—The whole of Bhután may be shortly described as a succession of lofty and rugged mountains, abounding in picturesque and sublime scenery. 'The prospect,' says Captain Turner, 'between abrupt and lofty prominences is inconceivably grand; hills clothed to their very summits with trees, dark and deep glens, and the high tops of mountains lost in the clouds, constitute altogether a scene of extraordinary magnificence and sublimity.' As might be expected from its physical structure, this alpine region sends out numerous rivers in a

southerly direction, which, forcing their passage through narrow defiles, and precipitated in cataracts over the precipices, eventually pour themselves into the Brahmaputra. One torrent is mentioned by Turner as falling over so great a height, that it is nearly dissipated in mid-air, and looks from below like a jet of steam. Of the rivers traversing Bhután, the most considerable is the Manás, flowing in its progress to the Brahmaputra under the walls of Tásgáon, below which it is unfordable. At the foot of Tásgáon Hill it is crossed by a suspension bridge. The other principal rivers are the Máchu, Tchinchu, Torshá Málichu, Kúrúchu, Dharlá, Raidak, and Sankosh.

People. — Previous to the British annexation of the Dwárs, the area of the kingdom was reckoned at about 20,000 square miles. The population of the country now remaining to Bhután was estimated in 1864 at 20,000 souls. Later information, however, points to a larger figure. The population consists of three classes—the priests; the chiefs or Penlows, including the governing class; and the cultivators. The people are industrious, and devote themselves to agriculture, but from the geological structure of the country, and from the insecurity of property, regular husbandry is limited to comparatively few spots. The people are oppressed and poor. 'Nothing that a Bhutiá possesses is his own,' wrote the British Envoy in 1864; 'he is at all times liable to lose it if it attracts the cupidity of any one more powerful than himself. The lower classes, whether villagers or public servants, are little better than the slaves of higher officials. In regard to them, no rights of property are observed, and they have at once to surrender anything that is demanded of them. There never was, I fancy, a country in which the doctrine of "might is right" formed more completely the whole and sole law and custom of the land, than it does in Bhután. No official receives a salary; he has certain Districts made over to him, and he may get what he can out of them; a certain portion of his gains he is compelled to send to the Darbár; the more he extorts and the more he sends to his superior, the longer his tenure of office is likely to be.'

Captain Pemberton thus describes their moral condition: 'I sometimes saw a few persons in whom the demoralizing influences of such a state of society had yet left a trace of the image in which they were originally created, and where the feelings of nature still exercised their accustomed influence, but the exceptions were rare; and although I have travelled and resided amongst various savage tribes on our frontiers, I have never yet known a people so wholly degraded as the Bhutiás.' Their energies are paralyzed by the nature of their institutions and the insecurity of property, their morals are extremely low, and their numbers reduced by the unnatural system of polyandry and the excessive prevalence of monastic institutions.

Physically the Bhutiás are a fine race, hardy and vigorous, with dark skins and high cheekbones, but dirty in their habits and persons. Their food consists of meat, chiefly pork, turnips, rice, barley-meal, and tea made from the brick-tea of China. Their favourite drink is *chong*, distilled from rice or barley and millet, and *maruá*, beer made from fermented millet; all classes are very much addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors. A loose woollen coat reaching to the knees, and bound round the waist by a thick fold of cotton cloth, or a leather belt, forms the costume of the men; a legging of broadcloth is attached to a shoe made generally of buffalo hide; no Bhutiá ever travels during the winter without protecting his legs and feet against the effects of the snow; a cap made of fur or coarse woollen cloth, completes the habiliment; the women's dress is a long cloak with loose sleeves. The houses of the Bhutiás are of three and four stories; all the floors are neatly boarded with deal; and on two sides of the house is a verandah ornamented with carved work, generally painted. The Bhutiás are neat joiners, and their doors, windows, and panelling are perfect in their way. No iron-work is used; the doors open on ingenious wooden hinges. The appearance of the houses is that of Swiss chalets, picturesque and comfortable — the only drawback being a want of chimneys, which the Bhutiás do not know how to construct.

The people nominally profess the Buddhist religion, but in reality their religious exercises are confined to the propitiation of evil spirits, and the mechanical recital of a few sacred sentences; in their religious observances, the most remarkable circumstance is the noise with which they are accompanied. The instruments used are clarionets, sometimes formed of silver and brass, but generally of wood with reed pipes, horns, shells, cymbals, drums, and gongs. Around the cottages in the mountains the land is cleared for cultivation, and produces fair crops of barley, wheat, buckwheat, millet, mustard, chillies, etc. Turnips of excellent quality are extensively grown; they are free from fibre and remarkably sweet. The wheat and barley have a full round grain, and the climate is well adapted to the production of both European and Asiatic vegetables. Potatoes have been introduced. The Bhutiás lay out their fields in a series of terraces cut out of the sides of the hills; each terrace is riveted and supported by stone embankments, sometimes 20 feet high. Every field is carefully fenced with pine branches, or protected by a stone wall. A complete system of irrigation permeates the whole cultivated area of a village, the water being often brought from a long distance through stone aqueducts. The Bhutiás do not care to extend their cultivation, as an increased revenue is exacted in proportion to the land cultivated, but devote their whole energies to make the land yield twice what it is estimated to produce. The language spoken by the Bhutiás is said to be a dialect of the

Tibetan, more or less blended with words and idioms of the countries on which their own territory touches.

Natural Products.—The extensive forests of Bhután abound in many varieties of stately trees. Among them are the beech, ash, birch, maple, cypress, and yew. Firs and pines cover the mountain heights; and below these, but still at an elevation of 8000 or 9000 feet, is a zone of vegetation consisting principally of oaks and rhododendrons. The cinnamon tree is also found. Some of the roots and branches were examined by Turner during his journey to Tibet; but the plant being neither in blossom nor bearing fruit, it was impossible to decide whether it was the true cinnamon or an inferior kind of cassia. The leaf, however, corresponded with the description given of the true cinnamon by Linnæus. The lower ranges of the hills teem with animal life. Elephants are so numerous as to be dangerous to travellers; but tigers are not common, except near the river Tístá. Leopards abound in the valleys, deer everywhere, some of them of a very large species. The musk deer is found in the snows, and the barking deer on every hill-side. Wild hogs are met with even at great elevations. Large squirrels are common. Bears and rhinoceros are also found. Pheasants, jungle fowls, pigeons, and other small game abound. The Bhutiás are no sportsmen. They have a superstitious objection to firing a gun, thinking that it offends the deities of the woods and valleys, and brings down rain. A species of horse or rather pony, which seems indigenous to Bhután, and is used as a domestic animal, is called *tángan*, from Tángastán, the general appellation of that assemblage of mountains which constitutes the territory of Bhután. It is peculiar to this tract, not being found in any of the neighbouring countries of Assam, Nepál, Tibet, or Bengal, and unites in an eminent degree the two qualities of strength and beauty. The *tángan* pony usually stands about 13 hands high, and is short-bodied, clean-limbed, deep in the chest, and extremely active; his colour inclines to piebald.

Manufactures, etc.—In so rude a country, the manufacturing industry of the people is, as might be expected, at a low stage, the few articles produced being all destined for home consumption. These consist of coarse blankets and cotton cloth made by the villagers inhabiting the southern tract. Leather, from the hide of the buffalo, imperfectly tanned, furnishes the soles of snow boots. Circular bowls are neatly turned from various woods. A small quantity of paper is made from a plant described as the Daphne papyrifera. Swords, iron spears, and arrow-heads, and a few copper caldrons fabricated from the metal obtained in the country, complete the list of manufactures. The foreign trade of Bhután has greatly declined. In 1809, the trade between Assam and Bhután amounted to £20,000 per annum, the lac,

tea, spices, gold, assafœtida, madder, silk, *erendi* cloth, and dried fish of Assam being exchanged for the woollens, gold-dust, salt, walnuts, oranges, musk, ponies, and silk of Bhután. In 1876–77, the entire trade between Bhután and British India was roughly estimated at £31,000. The exports were £9100 into Assam and £1300 into Bengal; the imports, £20,000 from Assam and £1000 from Bengal. A considerable trade between Lhássa and Assam is carried on through the Towáng Bhutiás, who are friendly, and occupy the southern slopes of the Himálayas to the eastward of Bhután proper, of which state they are independent. Eastward of the Towángs are the Chár Dwár and Thibangia Bhutiás, two small and well-behaved clans. The territory of the Towáng Bhutiás extends to the river Kanta, that of the Chár Dwár Bhutiás from the Kanta to the Ghaben river. In 1882–83, the total export trade from Towáng and Bhután Proper into British India through Assam amounted to £17,879, and the imports from India to £12,131; total value of trade, £30,010. This shows a considerable decrease compared with the returns for the previous year, 1881–82, when the total import and export trade with British India amounted to £40,906. The revenues of Bhután are usually paid in articles of produce and merchandise.

The military resources of the country are on an insignificant scale. Beyond the guards for the defence of the various castles, there is nothing like a standing army. The total military force was estimated by the British envoy in 1864 at 6000 men. The chief towns are Punakhá or Dosen, the capital, on the left bank of the Búgní river, and 96 miles E.N.E from Darjeeling; Tásichozong, Páro, Angdaphorang, and Toungso on the road from Assam to Lhássa. The other towns are Wandipur, Ghásá, and Murichom. Punakhá is a place of great natural strength.

Meteorology.—The climate of Bhután varies according to the difference of elevation; the cold of Siberia, the heat of Africa, and the pleasant warmth of Italy, may all be experienced in a day's journey. At the time when the inhabitants of Punakhá (the winter residence of the Rájás) are afraid of exposing themselves to the blazing sun, those of Ghásá experience all the rigour of winter, and are chilled by perpetual snows. Yet these places are within sight of each other. The rains descend in floods upon the heights, but in the vicinity of Tásichozong and Punakhá they are moderate; there are frequent showers, but nothing that can be compared to the tropical rains of Bengal. Owing to the great elevation and steepness of the mountains, terrible storms arise among the hollows, often attended with fatal results.

History.—Bhután formerly belonged to a tribe called by the Bhutiás Tephú, generally believed to have been the Kochs of Kuch Behar.

About two hundred years ago a band of Tibetan soldiers subjugated the Tephús, and settled down in the country. At the head of the Bhután Government there are nominally two supreme authorities, the Dharm Rájá, the spiritual head, and the Deb Rájá, the temporal ruler, who is elected by the Penlows every three years from their own number. To aid these Rájás in administering the country, is a council of permanent ministers, called the Lenchen. Practically, however, there is no government at all. Subordinate officers and rapacious governors of forts wield all the power of the State, and oppression and anarchy reign over the whole country. The Dharm Rájá is regarded as an incarnation of the deity. On his death a year or two is allowed to elapse; and the new incarnation then reappears in the shape of a child, who generally happens to be born in the family of a principal officer. The child establishes his identity by recognising the cooking utensils, etc. of the late Dharm Rájá; he is then trained in a monastery, and on attaining his majority is recognised as Rájá, though he exercises no more real authority than he did in his infancy. The Deb Rájá is in theory elected by the council. In practice, he is merely the nominee of whichever of the two governors of East or West Bhután happens for the time to be the more powerful.

The relations of the British with Bhután commenced in 1772, when the Bhutiás invaded the principality of Kuch Behar, a dependency of Bengal. The Kuch Behar ruler applied for aid, and a force under Captain James was despatched to his assistance; the invaders were expelled and pursued into their own territory. Upon the intercession of Teshu Lama, then regent of Tibet, a treaty of peace was concluded in 1774 between the East India Company and the ruler of Bhután. In 1783, Captain Turner was deputed to Bhután, with a view to promoting commercial intercourse, but his mission proved unsuccessful. From this period few dealings took place with Bhután, until the occupation of Assam by the British in 1826. It was then discovered that the Bhutiás had usurped several tracts of lowland lying at the foot of the mountains, called the Dwárs or passes, and for these they agreed to pay a small tribute. They failed to do so, however, and availed themselves of the command of the passes to commit depredations within British territory. Captain Pemberton was accordingly deputed to Bhután, to adjust the points of difference. But his negotiations yielded no definite result; and every other means of obtaining redress and security proving unsuccessful, the Assam Dwárs were wrested from the Bhutiás, and the British Government consented to pay to Bhután a sum of £1000 per annum as compensation for the resumption of their tenure, during the good behaviour of the Bhutiás. Continued outrages and aggressions were, however, committed by the

Bhutiás on British subjects in the Dwárs. Notwithstanding repeated remonstances and threats, scarcely a year passed without the occurrence of several raids in British territory headed by Bhutiá officials, in which they plundered the inhabitants, massacred them, or carried them away as slaves.

In 1863, the Hon. Ashley Eden was sent as an envoy to Bhután, to demand reparation for these outrages. He did not succeed in his mission; he was subjected to the grossest insults; and under compulsion signed a treaty giving over the disputed territory to Bhután, and making other concessions extorted by the Bhután Government. On Mr. Eden's return, the Viceroy at once disavowed his treaty, stopped the former allowance for the Assam Dwárs, and demanded the immediate restoration of all British subjects kidnapped during the last five years. The Bhutiás not complying with this demand, the Governor-General issued a proclamation, dated the 12th November 1864, by which the eleven Western or Bengal Dwárs were forthwith incorporated with the Queen's Indian dominions. No resistance was at first offered to the annexation; but, suddenly, in January 1865, the Bhutiás surprised the English garrison at Diwángiri, and the post was abandoned with the loss of two mountain guns. The disaster was soon retrieved by General Tombs, and the Bhutiás were compelled to sue for peace, which was concluded on the 11th November 1865. The Bhután Government, in the year following, formally ceded all the eighteen Dwárs of Bengal and Assam, with the rest of the territory taken from them, and agreed to liberate all kidnapped British subjects. As the revenues of Bhután mainly depended on these Dwárs, the British Government, in return for these concessions, undertook to pay the Deb and Dharm Rájás annually, subject to the condition of continued good behaviour, an allowance beginning at £2500 and rising gradually to a maximum of twice that amount. Since that time nothing of importance has occurred, and the annexed territories have settled down into peaceful and prosperous British Districts. A few Bhutiás inhabit the Eastern Dwárs portion of Goalpárá District in Assam, who resemble in every respect their countrymen of the Bhután Hills.

Bhutána.—Petty State in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. —*See* BHATHAN.

Bhuvaneswar.—The temple city of Siva in Purí District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 14′ 45″ N., long. 85° 52′ 26″ E. A sacred place of pilgrimage, and for six centuries the capital of the Siva-worshipping kings of the Kesarí or Lion dynasty of Orissa. The founder of the line, Yayati Kesarí, began the building of the great fane about 500 A.D.; two succeeding monarchs laboured at it, and the fourth of the house completed it in 657. The last public act of the dynasty was the building of the beautiful vestibule between 1099 and 1104, or little more

than a quarter of a century before the extinction of the race. Seven thousand shrines once clustered round the sacred lake of Bhuvaneswar. Not more than 500 or 600 now remain, and these are nearly all deserted and in ruins. They exhibit every stage of Orissa art, from the rough conceptions of the 6th century, through the exquisite designs and ungrudging artistic toil of the 12th, to the hurried and dishonest stucco imitations of Hindu architecture at the present day. A celebrated place of pilgrimage.

Bhwot-lay.—River in Pegu, British Burma.—*See* PA-DE.

Biána. — Town in Bhartpur State, Rájputána. On the route from Agra to Mau (Mhow), 50 miles south-west of the former. Situated on an eminence in a small plain between two ranges of hills running somewhat parallel to each other, from north-east to south-west. Population (1881) 8758, namely, 6907 Hindus, and 1851 Muhammadans. The town is of considerable antiquity and size, and possesses some large well-built houses of stone, besides many temples; and the whole ridge of the hill is covered with the remains of large buildings, among which the most remarkable is the fort containing a high stone pillar called Bhím Lát, or the 'Staff of Bhím,' conspicuous for a great distance through the country. This fort was once esteemed one of the chief strongholds in India, and the bulwark of Jadun dominion. It was held by the Jadun Rájá Bijai Pál, and was taken (A.D. 1004) by Sayyid Sálar Masáúd, a nephew of the great Musalmán conqueror, Mahmúd of Ghazní. There are numerous graves of Muhammadan fanatics, who perished here on the occasion known as 'Abu Khandar' (or more correctly, 'Abu Bakr Kandahárí'), a name having reference probably either to the great number of Afgháns who fell during the siege, or to the name and nationality of their leader. Biána is a spot of great sanctity in the eyes of Muhammadans, who declare that if a few more of the followers of the Prophet had received the crown of martyrdom here, the place would have superseded the title for veneration and pilgrimage held by Mecca. Biána is mentioned by Ferishta as a place of importance in 1491, when it stood a siege against Sikandar Lodhi. Bábar describes it in 1526 as one of the most famous forts in India; it was then held by an Afghán chief who surrendered it to him. In the following year a sanguinary battle was fought near this town between Bábar and Ráná Sanga, the Rájput prince of Udaipur (Oodeypore), who was defeated.

Biáns.—Pass in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, over the Himálayan range into Tibet; lying between 30° 3′ and 30° 28′ N. lat., and between 80° 42′ and 80° 57′ E. long. Has two forks, known respectively as the Lanpiya Dhúra and Mangshá Dhúra, the former of which reaches an elevation of 18,000 feet above sea-level. The Bhutiás carry on a trade over these passes by means of *yáks*, goats, and

pack-sheep with Takla Khar, in Tibet,—the imports being salt, gold, wools, drugs, precious stones, and Chinese silks; while the exports comprise grain, cotton, hardware, tobacco, sugar, dyes, and other southern produce. The whole valley is also known by the general name of Biáns, and is inhabited by a special class of Bhutiás, speaking a peculiar dialect of their own.

Biás.—One of the five rivers of the Punjab.—*See* BEAS.

Biás.—River rising in the hills of Sirmau in Bhopál State, close to the south-western boundary of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; flows in a north-easterly direction, passing, within 10 miles of Ságar, beneath a fine iron suspension bridge of 200 feet span, built by Colonel Presgrave in 1832, and falls into the Sonár near Narsinghgarh, in Damoh District.

Bichhraud. — Guaranteed Thákurate under the Western Málwá Agency of Central India.

Bickaneer.—State, Rájputána.—*See* BIKANER.

Bídar (*Bedar*).—Town in the Nizám's Dominions, Haidarábád (Hyderábád), Deccan; situated near the right bank of the Manjera, 75 miles north-west of Haidarábád town. Lat. 17° 53′ N., long. 77° 34′ E. It was the capital of the Báhmani Muhammadan dynasty, which ruled up to the middle of the 16th century. The town is surrounded by an extensive curtain, now much dilapidated, on one of the bastions of which lies an old gun 21 feet long. There is a minaret in the town 100 feet high, and on a plain to the south-west stand many large tombs. The place is noted for the metal ware to which it has given its name. This is an alloy of copper, lead, tin, and zinc, which is worked into articles of very elegant design, inlaid generally with silver, but sometimes also with gold. An interesting account of the manufacture, which is said to be gradually dying out, will be found in Balfour's *Cyclopædia of India*, vol. i. pp. 369, 370.

Bídesir.—Town in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána; lat. 27° 48′ 50″ N., long. 74° 22′ 15″ E., about 60 miles from Bíkaner. Captain Powlett, in the *Gazetteer of Bíkaner*, says of this place: A number of wealthy Seths live here, chiefly Oswáls, of whom there are 224 houses. Of Agarwálás, there are about 18 houses. Perhaps 30 of these are rich men. Bídesir is not a place of manufacture or much trade. The bazaar contains about 136 shops, and there are 10 temples, and almost as many *chhatris*. Fairly good water is reached at the depth of about 100 feet below the surface. Inferior sand and limestone are obtained in the neighbourhood. Post-office.

Bidhúna.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 314 square miles, of which 141 are cultivated; population (1881) 138,149; land revenue, £25,674; total Government revenue, £28,791; rental paid by cultivators, £40,456; incidence of

Government revenue, 2s. 6½d. per acre. The *tahsíl* contains 2 criminal courts, with 5 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 293.

Bidhúna.—Village in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bidhúna *tahsíl*; situated on the Etáwah and Kanauj road, 32 miles distant from Etáwah town, and 1 mile from the Rind *nadí*, which is here crossed by a bridge. The village is only important as the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, which were removed here after the Mutiny on account of the more central position of the present site. Bidhúna is connected with the Achalda station, on the East Indian Railway, by a raised and bridged road. North of the village are the ruins of an old fort. Market twice a week. Police station.

Bidi (or *Khánapur*). — Sub-division of Belgaum District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 632 square miles; contains 219 villages. Population (1881) 79,264, namely, 39,996 males and 39,268 females. Hindus number 69,547; Muhammadans, 4815; 'others,' 4902. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 2 criminal courts, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 54 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 382.

Bidyádharí.—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 21′ to 22° 27′ N., long. 88° 43′ to 88° 50′ E. Flows from the Sundarbans on the east, northwards past Haruá, where it takes the name of the Haruá Gáng; after which it bends to the west, and is joined by the Noná Khál; it then flows south-west to the junction of the Báliághátá and Tolly's canals, and afterwards south-east to Canning town. Here the Karatoyá and the Athárabánká join it, and the united stream passes south through the Sundarbans as the Matlá river, entering the Bay of Bengal under that name. It forms part of both the two channels (known as the Outer and Inner Sundarbans Passages) by which the traffic of Calcutta with the eastern Districts is carried on. Principal river-side villages—Málanchá, Básrá, and Pratápnagar; trade in firewood.

Bihár. — *Parganá* in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated in the extreme south of the Province. One of the most beautiful and fertile tracts in Oudh; celebrated for its magnificent groves of *mahuá* trees and for the numerous lakes and *jhíls* which stud its surface. Area, 228 square miles, of which 108 are cultivated; population (1881) 128,344, namely, Hindus, 114,036; and Muhammadans, 14,308. The proportion of high castes is above the average. Of the 237 villages which make up the *parganá*, 184 are held in *tálukdárí* tenure by four Bisen proprietors, known as the Bhadri, Kundrajit, Dahiáwán and Shaikhpur Chaurás *tálukdárs*; and the remaining 53 are held under *mufrád* tenure by 480 individuals. Bráhmans hold 4 villages; Bisens, 14; Káyasths, 8; Raikwárs, only

1; and Bais, 2. Muhammadan proprietors own 21 villages, chiefly in the neighbourhood of Mánikpur town. Bihár (*Vihára*) signifies a monastery, and the name usually commemorates the site of one of these Buddhist institutions.

Bihár.—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh; on the road to Mánikpur, 29 miles from Bela. Population (1881) 1029, namely, Hindus, 832; and Muhammadans, 197. Formerly a place of note and wealth, but recently much reduced owing to the turbulence of the *tálukdárs*. Government school.

Bihár.—*Parganá* in Unáo District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by Khíron, and on the south and west by Bhagwantnagar *parganá*. First constituted a *parganá* in the reign of Akbar. Two small rivers, the Lon and the Kharhi, flow through this tract, but irrigation is principally conducted from wells. Area, 24 square miles, 11 of which are cultivated; Government land revenue demand, £3964, or an average of 5s. 2⅞d. per acre. Bráhmans and Bais Rájputs are most numerous among the higher Hindu castes, and Ahírs and Chamárs among the lower. The Muhammadan population forms a very small proportion of the whole. Four roads intersect the *parganá*. Salt and saltpetre were formerly manufactured here, but neither is now worked.

Bihár.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 12 miles east of Purwá, and 30 south-east of Unáo, on the road thence to Rái Bareli. The Lon river, west of the town, is spanned by a handsome bridge erected by Government. Scene of a great battle, which took place about 100 years ago between the Ráos of Daundia Khera and the Rájá of Mauránwán aided by the chief of Sankarpur, all barons of the Bais clan. Population (1881) 1618, namely, Hindus, 1433, and Muhammadans, 185. Two temples, large masonry tank, and school; annual fair, attended by about 5000 persons.

Bihár.—River rising in lat. 24° 15′ N., long. 81° 5′ E., more than 1000 feet above the sea, in Rewá State, Central India, and falling into the Tons in lat. 24° 48′ N., long. 81° 22′ E. At the Chachai Falls, 50 miles from its source, the stream is precipitated over a rock 200 feet high. At Rewá, 20 miles higher up, the route from Allahábád to Ságar (Saugor) crosses it, and it is fordable at this point in dry weather.

Bihat.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency, lying between 25° 21′ and 25° 26′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 22′ 30″ and 79° 27′ E. long.; area, about 15 square miles; estimated population (1881) 4704; estimated revenue, £1300. The Jágírdár of Bihat is a Hindu Bundela, named Ráo Mahum Singh; he holds a *sanad* of adoption. A military force of 125 foot soldiers is kept up.

Bihat.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; 12 miles south-east of

Sitápur town. Population (1881) 1656, principally Hindus; residing in 217 houses. Noted for the excellence of its ironwork.

Bihiyá (*Beehea*).—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal. A large station on the East Indian Railway, with considerable local trade; 14 miles from Arrah, and 382 from Calcutta.

Bihiyá.—A branch canal of the Son irrigation system, branching from the twenty-seventh mile-post of the Arrah Canal, and extending to a small watercourse connected with the Ganges, near Bihiyá village, a distance of 30½ miles. It has 7 distributary channels, which again have small cuts or trenches leading in all directions to convey the water over the fields.

Bihora.—Petty State of Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1¼ square mile; estimated revenue (1882) £150, of which £5 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief has the title of Thákur.

Bihta Gosáin.—Town in Bilsi *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, situated at the intersection of the roads from Bilsi to Islámnagar, and from Sahaswán to Bisauli. A small sum is raised by means of a house-tax, under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, for police and conservancy purposes. Bihta Gosáin was the first village of the District to suffer from disturbances on the outbreak of the Mutiny in May 1857.

Bíja.—One of the Simla Hill States, in political connection with the Punjab Government. Lat. (centre) 30° 56′ N., long. 77° 2′ E.; area, 4 square miles; 33 villages; population (1881) 1158, namely, 771 Hindus, 363 Sikhs, and 24 Muhammadans. The chief or Thákur holds his lands under a *sanad* in the usual terms, being confirmed in all his rights on condition of paying tribute to defray the expenses of British protection, promoting the welfare of the *ráyats* and the cultivation of the land, and maintaining the security of the roads. The present Thákur is named Udái Chánd, of Rájput caste. He receives £10 a year as compensation for lands required for Kasauli cantonment. Revenue of the State, £100; military and police, 20 men. Tribute paid to the British Government, £18.

Bijágarh.—Ruined hill-fort among the Sátpura hills, in ancient times the capital of the province of Nimár. Lat. 21° 36′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. The modern district of Holkar, known as Bijágarh, has taken its name from this fortress. With the exception of the small district of Barwáni, the Circar of Bijágarh comprises nearly the whole of Southern Nimár. In 1796 it yielded a revenue of £15,000, but in 1820 only £5000.

Bijaigarh.—Ruined fort in Mirzápur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 24° 34′ 38″ N., long. 83° 13′ 35″ E. Perched on the summit of a wooded height, 9 miles north of river Son (Soane), and 50

miles south of Benares. The hill was no doubt occupied in very early times, but the existing fortress is attributed to the Emperor Sher Sháh. It was subsequently occupied by the Chandel Rájá of Bijaigarh, but was seized by Balwant Singh, the founder of the family of the Rájá of Benares, about 1772. In 1781, his son Chait Singh, in his rebellion against Warren Hastings, took refuge in this fort, but, on the advance of Major Popham, fled precipitately with all the treasure he could remove. His wife and mother, who remained, defended the fortress for a time, but finally surrendered to the British.

Bijaigarh.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 41 acres. Agricultural town, advancing in prosperity. School, post-office, ancient fort. Held in 1803 by Bhagwant Singh, who was not dislodged without trouble. Monument to Colonel Gordon, killed by an accidental explosion after the capture of the fort. Distant 12 miles from Aligarh, 10 miles from Sikandra.

Bijápur.—Sub-division of Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 869 square miles, with 1 village and 91 towns; occupied houses, 12,657; population (1881) 76,896, namely, 38,235 males and 38,661 females. Hindus number 66,853; Muhammadans, 9646; and 'others,' 397. The soil of this tract is very fertile in the valley of the Dhow, but in other parts it is barren, owing to the undulating nature of the country, which, though destitute of trees, is well supplied with water. Climate dry and healthy. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, with 7 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 80 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 389.

Bijápur (*Vijayapura*).—Chief town of the Sub-division of the same name in Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 49′ 45″ N., long. 75° 46′ 5″ E. Fifty-two miles north-east of Kaládgi, 130 miles south-east of Satára, and 160 miles south-east of Poona. Population (1881) 11,424, namely, 8422 Hindus, 2931 Musalmáns, 42 Jains, 8 Christians, and 21 Pársís. Area of town site, 1361 acres. Municipal revenue in 1880–81, £234; rate of taxation, 4⅝d. per head of population (11,757) within municipal limits; municipal expenditure in the same year, £253. Sub-judge's court, post-office, railway station, and dispensary. Bijápur has been recently made the head-quarters of Kaládgi District.

The founder of the Musalmán State of Bijápur was, according to Ferishta, a son of Murád II., the Osmanli Sultán, on whose death his son and successor, Muhammad II., gave orders that all his own brothers should be strangled. From this fate one only, named Yusaf, escaped by a stratagem of his mother. After many adventures, Yusaf is said to have entered the service of the King of Ahmadábád-Bidar, where he rose to the highest offices of state. On the king's death, he withdrew from Ahmadábád to Bijápur, and declared himself its king; the

people readily acknowledged his claim. Yusaf reigned with great prosperity, and, extending his dominions westward to the sea-coast, took Goa from the Portuguese. His resources must have been considerable, as he built the vast citadel of Bijápur. He died in 1510, and was succeeded by his son Ismáil, who died in 1534, after a brilliant and prosperous reign. Mulu Adíl Sháh having been deposed and blinded, after an inglorious reign of only six months, made way for his younger brother Ibráhím, a profligate man, who died in 1557. He was succeeded by his son Ali Adíl Sháh, who constructed the wall of Bijápur, the Jamá Masjid, or great mosque, the aqueducts and other works. This ruler joined the kings of Ahmadnagar and Golconda against Rájá Rám, the Hindu sovereign of Vijayanagar, and, with the exception of the Emperor of Delhi, was the greatest potentate in India. Rájá Rám was defeated in 1564 in a great battle at Tálikot on the river Dhon, and, being made prisoner, was put to death in cold blood, and his capital taken and sacked. Ali Adíl Sháh died in 1579.

The throne then passed to his nephew, Ibráhím Adíl II., an infant, whose affairs were managed by Chánd Bíbí, widow of the late king, a woman celebrated for her talents and energy. On Ibráhím assuming the government, he ruled with ability; and, dying in 1626, after a reign of forty-seven years, was succeeded by Muhammad Adíl Sháh, under whose reign Sivají, the founder of the Maráthá power, rose into notice. Sháhjí, the father of Sivají, had been an officer in the service of the King of Bijápur; and the first aggressions of Sivají were made at the expense of that State, from which, in the interval between 1646 and 1648, he wrested several forts. Soon afterwards he took possession of the greater part of the Konkan. Muhammad, however, had a more formidable enemy in the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Jahán, whose son and general, Aurangzeb, besieged the city of Bijápur, and was on the point of taking it, when he precipitately marched to Agra, whither he was drawn by intelligence of court intrigues, which he feared might end in his own destruction. After his departure, the power of Sivají rapidly increased, and that of the King of Bijápur proportionately declined. Muhammad died in 1660, and was succeeded by Ali Adíl II., who, on his decease in 1672, left the kingdom, then fast descending to ruin, to his infant son, Sikandar Adíl Sháh, the last of the race who occupied the throne.

In 1686, Aurangzeb took Bijápur, and put an end to its existence as an independent State. Its vast and wonderful ruins passed, with the adjoining territory, to the Maráthás during the decline of the Delhi empire. On the overthrow of the Peshwá, in 1818, they came into the hands of the British Government, and were included within the territory assigned to the Rájá of Satára, who manifested

much anxiety for the preservation of the splendid remains of Muhammadan grandeur in Bijápur, and adopted measures for their repair. Since the escheat of Satára in 1848, from failure of heirs, the Bombay Government has acted in the same spirit, having taken measures, with the approbation of the authorities in England, for arresting the further progress of dilapidation in the buildings, as well as for collecting and preserving the relics of manuscripts, coins, copper-plate inscriptions, and other curious and interesting memorials of the past. On the transfer of the head-quarters of Kaládgi District to Bijápur, many of the old Muhammadan palaces were utilised for public purposes. For a detailed description of the numerous architectural works found in Bijápur, the reader is referred to the admirable account given by Fergusson in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, pp. 557-567.

Bijápur.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in the Bargarh *tahsíl* of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 80 square miles; number of villages, 57; occupied houses, 3528; population (1881) 14,722, namely, 7415 males and 7307 females.

Bijáwar. — Native State in Bundelkhand, Central India, lying between 24° 21′ 30″ and 24° 57′ N. lat., and between 79° 1′ 45″ and 79° 57′ E. long.; area (1881) 973 square miles; number of villages, 298; occupied houses, 21,877; population (1881) 113,285, namely, Hindus, 108,246; Jains, 2506; Muhammadans, 2405; Christians, 5; aboriginal tribes, 123; density of population per square mile, 106·35; revenue, £22,500. The land is poor and hilly, yielding only jungle produce and the poorer kinds of grain. Diamonds are found, and ironstone is plentiful throughout the State. The title of the present ruler, Sawai Mahárájá Bhán Pratáp Singh, a Bundela Rájput, results from his descent from Bír Singh Deo, a natural son of Jagat Ráj, son of Chhatar Sál, the founder of the short-lived independence of Bundelkhand. After the acquisition of Bundelkhand by the East India Company, a grant was made in 1811, confirming the right of Ratan Singh, then Rájá, from whom the estate has descended to its present Chief.

A *sanad* granting the right of adoption was given to the Chief of Bijáwar in 1862; and, for services during the Mutiny, he received for himself and his heirs a dress of honour and a salute of 11 guns. The State pays no tribute, but keeps up a contingent of 100 horse, with 800 infantry, 4 guns, and 32 gunners. The title of Mahárájá, and the exercise of supreme criminal jurisdiction within his territories, was granted to the Chief in 1866. The principal town is Bijáwar, situated in lat. 24° 37′ N., long. 79° 31′ E.

Bijáya. — Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, leading from Parvatípur to Jaipur (Jeypore). The head of the pass rises to 3000 feet above the sea, the average gradient being 1 in 20.

Bijáyanagar.—Ruined city in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. —*See* HAMPI.

Bíjbahár.—Town in Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* BIJBHARU.

Bijbání.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 51′ 30″ N., long. 85° 10′ E. Market twice a week.

Bíjbharu.—Town in Kashmír State, Punjab, lying on the banks of the Jhelum (Jehlam) river, about 25 miles south-east of Srínagar, in lat. 33° 47′ N., and long. 75° 13′ E. The second city in importance and population in the Kashmír valley, containing a temple to Siva under his title of Bajeswar. Thornton notices its singular wooden bridge and large *bázár*, but states that the town contains nothing else worthy of special record.

Bijegarh.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BIJAIGARH.

Bíjepur.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Situated in one of the largest valleys in the range of hills to the east of Chitor. There is a large sheet of water to the north of the town, formed by a massive stone dam. The town is the residence of a second-class noble of the State, who owns 81 villages.

Bijerághogarh.—Tract of country in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 43′ 45″ and 24° 8′ N. lat., and between 80° 23′ 30″ and 81° E. long. Bounded north by Máihár State, east by Rewah, and west by the Murwárá *tahsíl* and Panná. Population (1881) 86,276; area, about 750 square miles. Formerly a protected chiefship belonging to a branch of the family which owns Maihar, but confiscated on account of excesses committed by the chief in 1857. Chiefly agricultural, but there is some fine timber in the portion preserved as a Government forest. Iron is found in several places, and is smelted after the rough native method.

Bijerághogarh.—Village in Murwárá *tahsíl*, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2645, namely, Hindus, 2129; Kabírpanthis, 214; Muhammadans, 301; aboriginal, 1. The town contains a handsome but comparatively recent fort, formerly the residence of the chiefs, but now used as revenue and police offices. The grounds attached to the fort are kept up as a public garden.

Bijipur.—One of the seven Khand *muttás* of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Formerly proscribed by the Meriah Agency as addicted to human sacrifice. It consists of 9 villages, and forms part of the Gúnápur *táluk*, being separated from Ponkála, the next stage, by a dense *sál* jungle 9 miles in extent.

Bijjí.—*Zamíndárí*, or large estate in Bastar State, Central Provinces; situated between 17° 46′ and 18° 23′ 15″ N. lat., and between 80° 58′ and 81° 34′ E. long. Contains 85 small villages; area, about 850 square miles; population (1881) 10,529, namely, 5514 males and 5015

females. Its teak forests, though greatly overworked, still supply timber for export, which is dragged either to the Godávarí at Parnsálá, or the Sabárí at Kuntá, and floated down to the sea.

Bijlí.—*Zamíndárí* or estate on the north-east border of Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 17,437; number of villages, 46, exclusive of two *shikmí zamíndárís* or minor estates, namely, Salekasá and Darekasá, the former consisting of 7, and the latter of 15 villages; area, 129 square miles, of which 25 are cultivated. The forests produce much valuable timber. One of the main District roads to Ráipur passes through this chiefship, leaving it by Darekasá Pass, which has lately been repaired. The hills near the pass contain some curious caves, partly artificial, called Kachagarh, 'or forts of safety,' and which must have been very useful as a refuge in former days, possessing a good water supply, and being difficult of approach, owing to the denseness of the bamboo jungle. The difficulty of approach through the dense bamboo jungle, and the advantage of a spring of water close by, justify the name. Just below the pass, the Kuardás stream falls from a height of about 50 feet into a large pool of very deep water. The Banjárás make this picturesque spot a favourite camping ground. The Nágpur and Chhatísgarh State Railway runs through a tunnel under Darekasá hill, cut out of the solid rock, and 750 feet long.

Bijna.—One of the Hasht-Bhái *jágírs* in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Area, 27 square miles, much sub-divided; population (1881) 2084; revenue, £800. There are 4 of these *jágírs*—Dhurwái, Bijna, Tori Fatehpur, and Pahári Bánká. They originally belonged to the Orchha or Tehri State, and were called Hasht-Bhái because the Diwán Rái Singh divided his *jágír* of Barágáon among his eight sons, and these shares have now become merged into four. The present *jágírdar* of Bijna is Makund Singh, a Hindu Bundela. The four *jágírdars* keep up a total military force of 15 guns, 50 horse, and 530 foot.

Bijna.—Town in Bijna State, Bundelkhand, Central India Agency. Lat. 25° 27′ 10″ N., long. 79° 5′ 15″ E. The principal place in the State of the same name. Situated on the route from Bánda to Jhánsi, 95 miles west of former, 40 east of latter.

Bijnaur (*Bijnor*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 1′ 30″ and 29° 58′ N. lat., and between 78° 2′ and 79° E. long.; area 1867·7 square miles; population (1881) 721,450 souls. Bijnaur is the northernmost District of the Rohilkhand Division, and is bounded on the north-east by the sub-montane road, which separates it from the foot of the Kumáun and Garhwál hills; on the west by the river Ganges, which separates it from Dehra Dún, Sahúranpur, Muzaffarnagar and Meerut (Merath) Districts;

and on the south and south-east by Morádábád, Tarái, and Kumáun Districts. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of Bijnaur.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Bijnaur, an irregular triangle, whose apex points directly northward, forms the uppermost portion of the Rohilkhand plain, stretching like a narrow wedge between the valley of the Ganges and the hills of British Garhwál. Its eastern boundary consists of the low outer Himálayan range, which subsides into a submontane tract as it reaches the borders of the District, while on the north is a system of small elevations, known as the Chándí Hills, a spur of the Garhwál range, and resembling in geological formation the Siwálik range in Dehra Dún on the opposite bank of the Ganges. They cover an area of about 25 square miles. Their barren, rugged, and waterless slopes afford no inducements for cultivation, and they remain accordingly quite without inhabitants to the present day. The submontane eastern tract, known as the *bhábar*, is covered with a belt of forest, interspersed from time to time with open glades of grass, which supply rich pasturage for numerous herds of cattle from all parts of the District. No *tarái* or marshy fringe intervenes in Bijnaur, as in the country to the east, between this forest region and the cultivated plain. The whole of the south and west consists of an open upland, with a general elevation of 800 feet above sea-level, covered throughout with prosperous tillage.

The soil of this higher plateau always contains sand, in varying proportions, but seldom to such an extent as to render the land uncultivable. The Ganges bank is lined by a strip of alluvial lowland, the wider valley of the sacred river, much of which lies too low for cultivation, while the remainder produces excellent crops of rice. This swampy portion, however, continually decreases from year to year, and most of the lowland is now available for purposes of agriculture. Numerous minor streams intersect the country between the hills and the Ganges, forming furious torrents in the rainy season, and shrinking into narrow threads of water after long-continued drought. The belt of forest area along the eastern frontier covers an average breadth of four miles, and has a total area of 370·03 square miles. In some tracts the tree forest is unbroken throughout the whole breadth of the belt, but in most places it is interspersed with grassy glades utilized for grazing.

The timber grown throughout the greater portion of the tract is of little value, consisting largely of *dhák* (Butea frondosa), *simul* (Bombax Malabaricum), and other inferior trees. But east of Behar, in *parganá* Afzalgarh, there is a block of *sál* (Shorea robusta) forest, measuring over 25 square miles; and a few smaller plantations of the same valuable trees are scattered at rare intervals over the rest of the belt. The *shisham* or Indian rosewood (Dalbergia Sissoo) is also found in fair quantities. Of the total forest area, over 100 square miles are Govern-

ment property. The mineral products of the District consist only of a scanty supply of *kankar* or nodular limestone, not sufficient, however, to supply local wants. The Chándí Hills and the forest belt give shelter to numberless wild animals, while the comparative seclusion of the eastern country secures excellent sport to occasional visitors. The fauna includes the tiger and the wild elephant, besides the usual game, birds, and fish. The proximity of the Ganges and the hills, together with the large forest area, keep the climate comparatively moist, and impart a pleasant greenness to the open plains.

History.—Bijnaur can lay little claim to historical importance, as it remained a mere distant portion of the Rohillá dominion until the extinction of their authority by the Oudh Wazírs, and never bore a conspicuous part in the annals of Upper India. Nevertheless, it makes an early appearance in literature, since Hwen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century A.D., mentions Mandáwar, 8 miles north of Bijnaur, as, even at that date, a flourishing city. About the year 1114, some Agarwálá Baniyás, from Murári in Meerut (Merath) District, crossed the Ganges into this tract, and, finding Mandáwar in ruins, restored it and settled on the spot. In 1400, Timúr visited Bijnaur, committing his usual atrocities; massacred a large number of the inhabitants, and gained a decisive victory in a battle near Lál Dhang. Thence he marched to Hardwár, and crossed into the Doáb. We hear no more of the District till the time of Akbar, when it formed part of the *Sarkár* of Sambhal in the *Subahat* of Delhi. Most of the existing fiscal sub-divisions may be found in Akbar's great revenue list under the names which they still retain. The larger part of the soil had already been brought under cultivation, and the large revenue which it afforded to the Mughal Emperors sufficiently proves its rising prosperity.

During the most prosperous age of the Delhi Empire, Bijnaur seems to have shared in the general freedom from historical incidents, which was the happy lot of regions remote from court intrigue and dynastic quarrels. But as the power of the Mughals relaxed, the Rohillá Afgháns appeared upon the scene in Upper India, and settled in the tract to the east of the Ganges about the year 1700. (*See* BAREILLY DISTRICT.) Their first great leader, Ali Muhammad, received a grant of the neighbouring country, which bore thenceforth the name of Rohilkhand. The Subahdár of Oudh quarrelled with the new-comer, and induced the Emperor Muhammad Sháh to march against him. Ali Muhammad surrendered to the Emperor, gained the favour of his suzerain, and was reinstated in his government about the year 1748. On his death he left his territories to his sons, under the guardianship of Háfiz Ráhmat Khán, the national hero of Rohillá legend. In 1771, the Maráthás, having placed the puppet Emperor Sháh Alam on the

throne of Delhi, turned their attention to the subjugation of Rohilkhand. The Rohillás sought assistance from the Wazír of Oudh in 1772, but the Wazír betrayed their trust, and, borrowing troops from the British and the Emperor, attacked and subjugated Rohilkhand in a merciless campaign. The treaty by which the Rohillás ceded their territory to the Wazír, with the exception of the RAMPUR STATE, reserved for Fáiz-ullá Khán, a son of Ali Muhammad, was concluded at Lál Dhang in this District in 1774.

This incident forms almost the only notice of Bijnaur which can be gleaned from the scanty Rohillá and Pathán narratives. The District doubtless shared in the general good government of Rohilkhand during its independent period, while, from its northern position, it probably escaped in great part the desolating effects of the war of subjugation. The large number of considerable Musalmán towns, and the general high state of cultivation, both point to long-continued prosperity in this isolated nook. Bijnaur was ceded to the British, with the neighbouring southern country, in 1801. Up till 1817, it formed a part of Morádábád District, being known as the Northern Division, but in that year it was erected into a separate charge. The administrative head-quarters were originally fixed at Nagína, the largest town of the District, but were removed to Bijnaur in 1824, both on account of its superior sanitary conditions and its proximity to the important military station at Meerut. The only event of note between the British occupation and the Mutiny was the defeat of Amír Khán of Tonk, near Afzalgarh, in 1803, by the British troops under Colonel Skinner, founder of the well-known landowning family.

The news of the Meerut outbreak reached Bijnaur on May 13, 1857. The Rúrkí (Roorkee) sappers mutinied and reached Bijnaur on the 19th, but they passed on without creating any disturbance, and the District remained quiet till the 1st of June. On that date, the Nawáb of Najíbábád appeared at Bijnaur with 200 armed Patháns. On the 8th, after the outbreaks at Bareilly and Morádábád, the European officers quitted Bijnaur, and reached Rúrkí on the 11th. The Nawáb at once proclaimed himself as ruler, and remained in power till the 6th August, when the Hindus of the District rose against the Musalmán authority and defeated him for the time. On the 24th, the Muhammadans returned in force and drove out the Hindus. The latter attacked their conquerors again on the 18th of September, but without success, and the Nawáb ruled unopposed until the 17th April 1858. Our troops then crossed the Ganges, and utterly defeated the rebels at Nagína on the 21st. British authority was immediately re-established, and has not since been disturbed.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total population of Bijnaur at 695,521 persons. The enumeration in 1872, on an area the

same as the present District, disclosed a total population of 737,153. Since then the population has declined, and the last Census in 1881 returned the population at 721,450, showing a decrease of 15,703, or 2·13 per cent. in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 383,258, and the female 338,192, dwelling in 2040 towns and villages and 84,871 houses. Average density of population, 386·2 per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·09; houses per square mile, 45·4; inmates per occupied house, 8·5. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Bijnaur is noticeable among the Districts of the North-Western Provinces for the large proportion of its Musalmán inhabitants. The Census shows 484,334 Hindus, or 67 per cent., as against 236,073 Muhammadans, or 33 per cent. The unusual number of Musalmáns is doubtless due to the thick sprinkling of considerable towns, whose population consists in great part of Shaikhs, Sayyids, and Patháns. The District also contained 299 Christians, 725 Jains, and 18 Sikhs at the date of the Census. Of the various Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 27,775; Rájputs, 18,537; Baniyás, 15,939; Ahírs, 5520; Chamárs, or landless agriculturists, just emerging from serfdom, 105,674; and Káyasths, 3552. Regarding the occupations of the people, the Census Report returns the male population under the following six main heads:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 9349; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1435; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 10,139; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 149,462; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 66,213; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 15,164 general labourers, and 131,496 unspecified, including male children), 146,660. The District contains no fewer than 13 towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely, BIJNAUR, 15,147; NAJIBABAD, 17,750; SHERKOT, 15,087; CHANDPUR, 11,182; NAGINA, 20,503; SEHORA, 9014; SAHISPUR, 6338; DHAMPUR, 5708; MANDAWAR, 7125; AFZALGARH, 7797; NIHTOR, 9686; JAHALU, 5547; and KIRATPUR, 12,728. The high proportion of their Muhammadan inhabitants may be seen by comparing the statistics for the six towns whose populations exceed 10,000 souls. The following figures give the number of Hindus to each 100 Musalmáns in these towns:—Bijnaur, 100·8; Najíbábád, 118; Sherkot, 46; Chándpur, 47; Nagína, 55; and Kirátpur, 52. The only other places of interest in the District are the Rohilla fortress of Pathargarh, a mile north-east of Najíbábád, now fast falling into ruins; and the remains of an ancient city, some 6 miles in extent, at Parasnáth, near Nagína, where a few foundations and some carved stone figures alone mark the deserted site.

Agriculture.—The character of the soil, and the system of tillage in

Bijnaur, do not materially differ from those prevalent throughout the whole upper basin of the Ganges and its tributaries. Here and there, especially in the south-western corner of the District, undulating sand-hills overlie the fertile soil, composed of materials which originally shifted from time to time before the prevailing westerly winds, but which have now become fixed in position and bound together by coarse vegetation. Most of them produce barley and other inferior crops in years of favourable rain. The open plain country is divided into *bángar* or upland, and *khádar* or lowland. The latter lies along the river-sides; and its soil is always composed of clay, but intermixed with sufficient sand for agricultural purposes. Of the total cultivated area, 36 per cent. is *khádar* and 64 per cent. *bángar*. Besides the alluvial border of the Ganges, the rivers Málin, Kho, and Rámgangá are all fringed with a fertile strip of valuable lowland. The total area under cultivation amounted in 1880 to 652,689 acres. Of this total (including twice-cropped land), the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, sown in June or July, and reaped in October or November, occupied some 418,550 acres. The area in acres under the principal *kharíf* crops was returned as follows:—Rice, 201,001; *bájrá*, 66,702; *urd*, 24,493; *moth*, 14,209; cotton, 21,995; sugar-cane, 47,995; together with smaller quantities of oil-seeds, dye-stuffs, and coarse grains. The *rabí* or spring harvest (including twice-cropped land), sown in October or November, and reaped in March and April, covered in 1880, 292,692 acres. Its chief crops included wheat, 101,121 acres; barley, 42,155 acres; gram, 25,140 acres; wheat and barley, mixed, 73,960 acres; together with vegetables, opium, tobacco, and safflower, and minor quantities of pulses, oil-seeds, and common food-stuffs. In 1881–82, the total cultivated area was returned at 655,085 acres, or, including two-crop (*do fasli*) land, 693,437 acres.

Wheat, rice, cotton, and sugar-cane form the most important products. The mode of cultivation is simple, and the implements in use hardly differ from those of the Vedic age. The tenures belong to the three classes common to the whole North-Western Provinces; but the *zamíndárí* holdings form 79 per cent. of all the estates, whilst among these more than half belong to single owners, chiefly the great *tálukdárs* of Sherkot, Tájpur, Haldaur, and Sáhanpur. The average number of acres cultivated in 1881 by each head of the regular agricultural population (409,453, or 56·75 per cent. of the District population) was 2·64 acres; the amount of Government land revenue, including local cesses levied on the landholders, was £140,737; the amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators was £262,689, or an average of 8s. 0⅝d. per cultivated acre. Nearly the whole population are, however, more or less dependent on agriculture, as nearly all the weavers, barbers, blacksmiths, and carpenters cultivate land, and live

quite as much by tillage as by their proper handicraft. The artisan class are fairly prosperous, judged by an Indian standard, but the purely agricultural labourers are deeply in debt and very helpless. Wages and prices are on the increase. Coolies and unskilled labourers receive from 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural hands, from 2¼d. to 3d.; and skilled artisans, from 6d. to 2s. Women obtain about one-fifth less than men, and children from one-half to one-third the wages of adults. Prices of food-stuffs ruled as follows in 1882: Wheat, 17¾ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 5d. per cwt.; rice (best), 11½ *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 3d. per cwt.; rice (common), 13½ *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 3d. per cwt.; *joár*, 22½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 11d. per cwt.; and *bájrá*, 20¾ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 3d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Bijnaur suffers, like other North-Western Districts, from drought and its natural consequence, famine. Indeed, as its dense population depends largely for support upon imported grain, even during the most favourable years, it would be very disastrously affected by dry seasons, were it not for the unusual moisture of the soil, due to its sub-montane position. The great famine of 1783-84 was felt in Bijnaur, as in all other parts of the North-Western Provinces, but it did not produce such serious distress as in Agra and the south-west. In 1803-4, after the cession of Rohilkhand to the British, another severe famine occurred; failure of rain took place at the time for sowing the autumn crops; no grain could be imported from the westward; and by February 1804 discord was rife, the cultivators removed their crops as fast as they ripened, and the landholders absconded in every direction. In 1825-26, serious drought set in, and the resulting scarcity rose to a dangerous pitch, as the *zamíndárs* refused to permit sowings, on account of the approaching land settlement. In 1837, again, the memorable famine which desolated the North-West fell upon the neighbouring parts of Upper India with great severity; but Rohilkhand and the Upper Doáb escaped with less misery than the southern Districts, while a timely rain, in February 1838, rescued Bijnaur and Morádábád from distress, and enabled them to reap an average crop. In 1860-61, only three-tenths of the District suffered; and both in 1868-69 and in 1877-78, the famine, though felt over the whole area, did not produce any markedly disastrous result. The insufficient communications of this District would doubtless present a real element of danger in any future droughts or famines.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Sugar is the great commercial staple of the District, the Bijnaur manufacture fetching higher prices in the market than any other Indian brand. On the other hand, the District is incapable of supplying itself with food-stuffs, as much as 24 per cent. of its grain being imported from without in ordinary years. Gram is also largely imported as fodder, while 60,000 *maunds* of salt come annually

into the District from Rohtak and Delhi. The chief manufactures are Bráhmanical threads (*janeo*) at Bijnaur; papier-maché at Mandáwar; metal-work, blankets, cotton, and shoes at Najíbábád; and carved ebony, glassware, ropes, and firearms at Nagína. Bijnaur has only 15 miles of metalled road, as no stone suitable for the purpose exists within the District, and even for this short distance the metal must be brought from Muzaffarnagar. There are altogether 615 miles of made roads; but many of these are in a bad state, and no really good means of communication exist. Traffic meets with a serious impediment on its way to the markets of the Doáb, from the interposition of the Ganges, with its heavy sand, and almost impassable alluvial fringe. The timber trade from the Bhábar forests to the Districts beyond the river proceeds by two principal routes over the Jalálpur and Raoli *gháts*. The Ganges is practicable for country boats as far as Nágal, 20 miles south of Hardwár, but none of the other rivers admit of navigation.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Collector-Magistrate, 1 Joint and 1 Assistant Magistrate, and 1 uncovenanted Deputy Magistrate, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The criminal jurisdiction is vested in the session judge of Bijnaur and Budáun, and the civil jurisdiction in the judge of Morádábád, to whom in this capacity the sessions judge of Bijnaur and Budáun is an 'additional' judge. *Munsifs*, or subordinate civil judges, are stationed at Bijnaur and Nagína. The total amount of District revenue in 1880 was £138,714, of which £122,843 was derived from the land. In 1881–82, the total imperial, municipal, and local revenue amounted to £156,500. In 1880–81, the regular District police (including municipal and town police) consisted of 657 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £7315, of which £5825 was charged to provincial revenues and £1490 to local funds. The District jail contained in 1880 a daily average of 219 prisoners, comprising 214 males and 5 females. Education was carried on in 1880 by 128 schools under Government inspection and receiving State aid, with a joint roll of 3991 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided and uninspected schools. The American Methodist Episcopalian Mission maintains some aided schools. The District contains 14 imperial and 8 local post-offices; no telegraph or railway yet exists, but a line now (1883) in course of construction from Morádábád to Saháranpur will cut through the heart of Bijnaur. For fiscal and administrative purposes Bijnaur is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 15 *parganás*, containing a total of 3140 estates; average land revenue from each estate, £37, 19s. 10d. Municipalities have been established at the five towns of Bijnaur, Chándpur, Dhámpur, Nagína, and Najíbábád. In 1880–81, their joint income amounted to £5173, and their joint expenditure to £4100.

Medical Aspects.—The chief endemic diseases of Bijnaur comprise intermittent fevers, dysentery, and bowel complaints. Ophthalmia also causes much trouble, and small-pox not unfrequently occurs. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1880–81 was 23,213, or 30·53 per 1000 of the population. The average recorded death-rate for the preceding five years was 34·04 per 1000. During the same year, the District contained 5 charitable dispensaries, at Bijnaur town, Najíbábád, Nagína, Sherkot, and Chándpur, in which 58,947 persons received treatment; average daily number of patients, in-door, 30·19; out-door, 364·99. The climate, on the whole, may be considered pleasant and healthy. The average yearly rainfall for the 30 years ending 1881 was 35·79 inches. The maximum during this period was 59·6 inches in 1880–81, and the minimum 23·1 inches in 1860–61. [For further information regarding Bijnaur, see the *Settlement Report* of the District by A. M. Markham, Esq., C.S. (1874); the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. v. pp. 238–498, with a Map (Allahábád, 1879); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces* for 1881; and the *Administration Reports* of those Provinces from 1881 to 1883.]

Bijnaur.—*Tahsíl* of Bijnaur District, North-Western Provinces, lying around the head-quarters station. Area, 307·07 square miles, of which 204·7 are cultivated; population (1881) 124,096; land revenue, £21,950; total revenue, £24,355; rental paid by cultivators, £42,640; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 3d. per acre. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 4 criminal and 4 civil courts, with 3 police stations (*tahsíls*); strength of regular police, including municipal and town police, 103 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*) and road police, 299.

Bijnaur.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Bijnaur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 22′ 36″ N., long. 78° 10′ 32″ E. Population (1881) 15,147, namely, Hindus, 7524; Muhammadans, 7463; Jains, 5; Christians, 144; and 'others,' 11: area of town site, 380 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £841; expenditure, £683. Bijnaur stands on slightly undulating ground about 3 miles from the left bank of the Ganges, whose rich plain it overlooks. It is a neat but unpretending little country town, with more than the usual number of brick-built houses. Through its centre runs a broad main road, the principal place of business, metalled and flanked with good drains. Nine lines of road radiate from the town into the surrounding country. The town is the centre of a large local trade in sugar, for which Bijnaur has a high reputation; manufacture of Bráhmanical threads, cotton cloth and knives. Occupied during the Mutiny by the rebel Nawáb of Najíbábád (*see* BIJNAUR DISTRICT). Post-office, dispensary, American Methodist Mission. Great bathing fair at Dáranagar, on the Ganges, 6 miles south, in November; lasts 5 days, and attracts 40,000 pilgrims.

Bijnaur.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Lucknow and Kákori *parganás*, on the east by those of Mohanlálganj and Sisáindi, and on the south and west by Unáo District. A bare and desolate tract, owing to the extent of unculturable tracts impregnated with saline efflorescence (*úsar*). Around the villages, however, the cultivation is very fair, all the ordinary grains and pulses being grown. Area, 148 square miles, of which only 60 are cultivated, and, owing to the reason stated above, probably the limit of cultivation has been reached. The average incidence of the Government land revenue demand is at the rate of 2s. 0½d. per acre of total area, 3s. 6¾d. per acre of assessed area, and 5s. 0½d. per acre of cultivated area. The average rate of rent paid by ordinary cultivators is about 17s. 9d. per acre, the average size of a husbandman's holding being 3⅓ acres. Of the 110 villages or towns which make up the *parganá*, nearly one-half are held by Chauhán Rájputs, 23 by Bráhmans, and the remainder by Muhammadans. The total number of separate estates is 111, the chief tenure being *zamíndárí*. Population (1881) 60,065, namely, 31,615 males and 28,450 females; average density of population, 405 per square mile. One metalled and two unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*, as also the Lucknow and Cawnpur Railway, with a station at Haráuni. Police station at Banthra, with outpost station at Bani bridge on the Sai. Government schools in 6 villages.

Bijnaur.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; 8 miles south of Lucknow city, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road. Lat. 26° 56′ N., long. 80° 84′ E. Said to have been founded by, and to have taken its name from, Bijlí Rájá, a Pásí, who built the great fort of Nathawán, a mile to the north of the town, and was probably driven out by the first Musalmán invaders. During Muhammadan rule, the town was the head-quarters from which the *parganá* of the same name was administered, and a place of considerable trade. At the present day it has sunk into a quiet agricultural village, with a few brick houses, the residences of some of the decayed Musalmán gentry. Population (1881) 3370, namely, 2141 Hindus, and 1229 Muhammadans. Once celebrated for its fine cotton cloths, but the manufacture has now greatly fallen off, under the competition of English piece-goods. Government school. Just outside the town on the south are the ruins of the old fort, where the Government officials used to reside; and on the west are extensive remains of brick tombs, built over the Muhammadans who fell at the time of the conquest of the country.

Bijni.—One of the Eastern Dwárs attached to Goálpárá District, Assam. Area, 374·19 square miles; population (1881) 24,882. Area under cultivation, 142·71 square miles; 12·56 square miles have been declared 'forest reserves,' out of a total of 190 square miles proposed as 'protected forest.' The Rájá of Bijni claims descent from

the royal family of Kuch Behar. Besides being the revenue-collector under Government of Bijni Dwár, he is also *zamíndár* of the two *parganás* of Khuntághát and Hábrághát in the permanently settled portion of Goálpárá District, with an area of 942½ square miles. The estate has recently been administered under the Court of Wards during the minority of the Rájá. The average annual rental was found to be £12,160, while the Government revenue is only £235. An accumulated surplus of £79,047 was handed over to the young Rájá when he came of age.

Bijni.—Largest village in the Dwár of the same name, forming one of the Eastern Dwárs attached to Goálpára District, Assam; on the north bank of the Daláni river, which is here crossed by a ferry. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 90° 47′ 40″ E. There is a small *bázár*.

Bijnor.—District, *tahsíl*, and town, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BIJNAUR.

Bijoli. — Chief village of an estate of that name in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Situated about 100 miles north-east of Udaipur, and the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 76 villages.

Bíkaner (*Bickaneer*).—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of a Political Agent and the Governor-General's Agent for Rájputána, lying between 27° 12′ and 30° 12′ N. lat., and between 72° 15′ and 75° 50′ E. long. The area according to the Census return of 1881 is 22,340 square miles; but this can only be an inference, as a large portion is still unsurveyed. Number of villages, 1739, including 6 chief towns. Population (1881) 509,021, namely, Hindus, 436,190; Muhammadans, 50,874; Jains, 21,943; and Christians, 14.

Bíkaner is bounded on the north-west by Baháwalpur, a Muhammadan State; on the north-east by the British Districts of Sirsa and Hissár in the Punjab; on the east by Jaipur (Jeypore); on the south and south-west by Jodhpur and Jaisalmír (Jeysulmere). The southern, and most of the north-eastern portions of the State, form part of the vast sandy tract known as the Bágar, comprising also Márwár and the north of Jaipur. The north-west and part of the north lie within the Thar or Great Indian Desert; the north-east corner, adjoining Sirsa, is the least unfertile section of the State, being in favourable years flooded by the Sotra. The only rocky hills in the State are at the borders of Jaipur and Jodhpur, and even these are not more than 500 feet above the level of the plain. From the city of Bíkaner, south-west to the Jaisalmir border, the country is hard and stony; but throughout the greater part of the territory the plain is undulating or interspersed with shifting sandhills from 20 to over 100 feet high, whose slopes, lightly furrowed from the action of the wind, suggest the ribbed appearance of the sea-shore. Generally

speaking, the villages are far apart, and though grass and jungle bushes here and there abound, the aspect of the country is dreary and desolate in the extreme. Elphinstone has said that within a short distance of the capital, the country is as waste as the wildest parts of Arabia. Forest does not exist. South of the capital there is a considerable tract covered with brushwood, in which the horses and cattle of the chief are allowed to range, and near some of the towns there are small plantations of the *Ber* (Zizyphus jujuba). During and just after the rains, the country, however, wears a very different aspect, becoming a vast green pasture-land covered with the richest and most succulent grasses.

The Bíkaner country contains no rivers or streams. In the rainy season, a *nalá* sometimes flows from Shaikhawáti over the eastern border, but is soon lost in the sands. The Ghagar, called also the Satra or Hakra in the Punjab, once flowed through the northern part of the present Bíkaner territory; but it is now dry, and wells are dug in its bed, where it is said the only sweet water in that region is to be found. During the rains, however, it sometimes contains water for a few miles of its course; and the Tibí *parganá* is greatly benefited by it. Some water from the Western Jumna Canal occasionally enters the State west of Hissár. Two little fresh-water lakelets, formed by the drainage of the rocky country south-west of Bíkaner, lie on the route from Bíkaner to Jaisalmír. The first, Gajner, about 20 miles from the capital, has clear water and wooded margin; its palace and garden and fields are a pleasing contrast to the surrounding wilds; the other, 12 miles farther on the route, is a sacred spot, numerous bathing *gháts* having been built on the banks. The lake of Chápar in the Shujángarh District is the principal source of the salt supply of Bíkaner; it is about 6 miles long by 2 miles wide, but it is very shallow, and almost dries up before the hot weather begins. There is another salt lake about 40 miles north-east of Bíkaner. The salt produced from these lakes is of inferior quality, valued at about half the price of Sámbhar salt. It is only consumed by the poor, or used for curing skins and other antiseptic purposes.

Water in Bíkaner is found, notwithstanding the slight apparent difference in the level of the country, at very varying depths, and is of very unequal quality. Thus, the city wells are more than 300 feet deep, but the water of most is of excellent quality, while 10 or 12 miles to the north and north-west water is found within 20 feet of the surface; but frequently there is not above 3 feet of sweet water,—an inch too far, and the stratum of pernicious water is tapped, thus spoiling the well for all practical purposes. The people of the country depend a good deal upon rain-water, the drainage of the neighbourhood being collected either in covered pits, called *kunds*, or in simple

excavations (*sar*). At Nokha, midway between Bíkaner and Nagaur, is a well 400 feet deep, and only 3½ feet in diameter at the mouth; water drawn from this well is quite hot. During the hot season the scarcity of water often causes great suffering. Travellers are sometimes found dead on the road for want of it.

Bíkaner suffers from extremes of heat and cold. During the hot season, the heat is exceedingly great; heavy sandstorms are of frequent occurrence, and the sun is so powerful that even the natives of the country fear to travel in the middle of the day. In winter, the cold is generally very severe, trees and vegetation being injured by the frost. Guinea-worm is very prevalent.

Lime is abundant in many parts of the State, especially in the neighbourhood of the city of Bíkaner and the town of Shujángarh. Red sandstone is quarried at Khárí, 30 miles north-east, and is also found in smaller quantities west of Bíkaner. The Khárí quarry supplies the building materials used for ornamenting all works of importance in the city. Fuller's earth, quarried in large quantities about 30 miles to the south-west, is used as soap, and for dyeing cloth. Copper was formerly extracted from a hill near Bidásir, in the Shujángarh District, 70 miles east of the city; but the mine has not been worked for many years.

The staple crops are *bájrá* (Holcus spicatus) and *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius). Water-melons and *kakrís* (a coarse kind of melon) are also grown. Bíkaner abounds in the best cattle-grasses; indeed, the whole country may be said to be a pasture ground. The domestic animals are finer and more serviceable than those of any other part of India; the horses are strong and wiry; the cattle and buffaloes are equally famous. The State was formerly renowned for its riding camels, but they have deteriorated of late years. The principal manufactures are woollen fabrics, blankets, and sweetmeats; the exports, in addition to these, are wool, soda, fuller's earth, grain, leathern water-bags, and ivory bracelets ornamented with gold, which are in great demand throughout Rájputána.

The population of the State was estimated by Major Powlett in 1874 as not less than 300,000. The Census of 1881 returned the total at 509,021, of whom 293,650 were males and 215,371 females, occupying 107,569 houses; or 22·78 persons per square mile of area, and 4·73 persons per occupied house. According to religion there were, Hindus, 436,190; Muhammadans, 50,874; Jains, 21,943; and Christians, 14. The number of villages is said to be 1739, but villages in Bíkaner are so frequently abandoned and repopulated, that the number existing at any given time can, it is feared, never be precisely ascertained. The most numerous castes are Játs, who are almost all agriculturists; Baniyás or traders number

49,907, some of whom cultivate the soil; Rájputs, 41,696, three-fourths of the number being cultivators; and Bráhmans, 55,816, also mostly cultivators. Spare land being very plentiful, the holdings are large, and there is no struggle for shares, as in adjoining British territory. The proprietary right in land throughout Bíkaner belongs, as a rule, to the State. The cultivator's right of occupancy is supposed to depend on his ability to meet the State demands. The yearly revenues of the Mahárájá amount to about £125,000, collected in the form of land-tax, customs, fines, civil court fees, and minor items. The following are the Districts and chief towns of the State:—In the north, Tibi, Anúpgarh, Sardárgarh, Suratgarh, and Hanumángarh; in the north-east, Nohar and Bahádrán; in the east, Rájgarh and Chúrú; in the south-east, Shujángarh and Ratangarh; and Pugal in the west. Other large towns are Reni, Sardár Shir, Deshnuk, Koláth, Bidesar, and Bhatnair.

The ruling family of Bíkaner is of the Ráhtor clan of Rájputs. The State was founded by Bíka, born in 1439, the sixth son of Jodha Ráo of Márwár, the founder of Jodhpur. The first contact of the British Government with Bíkaner State occurred in 1808, when Mr. Elphinstone, the British Envoy, passing through on his way towards Kábul, was treated with great respect by the Mahárájá, Súrat Singh. In 1818, the country being overrun by the Pindárís, supported by rebellious nobles, British troops, in accordance with a treaty then made, entered the territory and suppressed the insurgents. Twelve forts in all were taken by the British, and handed over to the Mahárájá. Súrat Singh died in 1828, and was succeeded by Ratan Singh. In the first Sikh war (1845), Bíkaner troops marched in conjunction with British forces towards Firozpur (Ferozepore); and during the second Sikh campaign (1848), a small body of horse and artillery were placed at the disposal of the British, and camels and stores were collected; but it was found that the route through Bíkaner could not be advantageously used by troops, owing to want of water and supplies. During the Mutiny, the Bíkaner chief, Sirdar Singh, furnished a force to co-operate with General Courtland against the mutineers of Sirsa, Hánsi, and Hissár. In recognition of these services, the British Government bestowed 41 villages on the Mahárájá, in addition to the right of adoption. The present chief is an adopted son. He is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. Bíkaner contributes to no local corps or contingents; it maintains a force of 960 cavalry, 180 artillerymen, 1700 infantry, 24 field and 56 other guns. [For further information regarding Bíkaner State, see the *Rájputána Gazetteer*, vol. i. pp. 179–202 (Calcutta, 1879).]

Bíkaner (*Bickaneer*).—The capital of the Rájput State of the same name, founded in 1438 by Bíka, sixth son of Jodha Ráo of Márwár;

situated on a slight elevation amid a scene of singular dreariness, the soil being stony and totally unfit for cultivation. Viewed from some points, it presents the appearance of a great city, having a fine wall surmounted by round towers, and crowned with battlements. So imposing is its appearance, that, when approached in 1808 by Elphinstone's mission, there were disputes among his followers whether it was not more extensive than Delhi. Some high houses and temples rising above the ramparts, and the striking outline of the lofty fort, add to the impressive appearance of the place. The wall, 3½ miles in circuit, is built wholly of stone, and has five gates and three sally-ports. It is 6 feet thick, and from 15 to 30 feet high, including a parapet 6 feet high and 2 feet thick, the breadth of the terre-plain varying from 2 to 4 feet. There is a ditch on three sides only, the ground on the southern face being intersected by deep ravines, which have broken up the whole plain in that quarter. As the soil is *kankar*, or calcareous conglomerate intermingled with silicious pebbles, the sides of the ditch, though not lined with masonry, are nearly perpendicular. The depth is about 15 feet, the breadth 20 feet, the interval between the wall and the ditch from 20 to 30 yards; but in some places the excavation has been quite filled up. In the interior are many good houses, faced with red sandstone richly carved. Dr. Moore, who was superintending surgeon, observes that carved buildings are more numerous in Bíkaner than in any of the Rájput capitals. This tracery is called *khuda* or *manbat*. But the houses are situated in narrow, dirty lanes, where they can scarcely be seen. The poorer kind are besmeared with a sort of reddish clay, abundant in the ravines near the city, which gives the place an appearance of neatness and uniformity, the walls being all red, and the doors and windows white. Distinct wards or sub-divisions are allotted to the respective trades and crafts.

Dr. Moore remarks, regarding the interior of the city, that to the north and the north-east within the walls, there are large open spaces not yet built over, or with only small houses here and there. Penetrating farther, the more densely populated portion of the town is reached; and this, from the extreme irregularity of the streets, lanes, and spaces, defies any clear description. None of the capitals or large provincial towns of Rájputána can vie with Bíkaner as regards the grotesque irregularity of its thoroughfares. The population of the city and its suburbs was returned in 1881 at 43,283, of whom 21,409 are males and 21,874 females; the Hindus number 31,602; Muhammadans, 7354; 'others,' 4327: the number of houses within the city in 1874, 7331, with 1470 in the suburbs. Of these, 1015 were of masonry. The total number of shops was 741; temples, 13; mosques, 14. The most numerous classes are the Baniyás, chiefly Oswáls and Mahesris, whose united numbers amount to 10,000; and the Bráhmans,

who exceed 7000, the great majority being Pokarna. The only other class which number over 1000 are the Sewaks, or servants of the various temples. The total number of wells is 41, of which in the city 5 are sweet, in the suburbs 22, in the fort 4, the remainder being brackish.

Outside the city stands the Alak Ságar Well, built by the Alakgír sect. It is the finest well in the State, and water is constantly being drawn from four sides. Water at Bíkaner is only obtainable 300 or 400 feet below the surface. Dr. Moore investigated the material brought up from a well where water had been reached at a depth of 316 feet. The strata passed through were—first, a mass of *kankar*; then red clay; thirdly, sandstone; and lastly, white gritty sand or gravel,—the latter consisting of white stones from the size of a pea to that of an egg, composed of quartz, and although not round, yet with surfaces and angles so smooth as to give rise to the idea that they must at some time have been exposed to the action of running water. The water of Bíkaner, though not plentiful, is generally excellent in quality. It is somewhat hard from excess of lime, and when drawn from the wells often has a temperature of 85° F. To protect it from organic impurities, a stone covering is usually put over the mouths of wells, and the water is conveyed to the city in large *ghards* or earthen jars instead of the common leathern *masaks*. The people of Bíkaner are exceedingly dirty both in their persons and habits; but as they do not wash in or on the brink of wells, the supply of drinking water is not contaminated. In other respects the sanitary condition of the city is very bad.

There are several schools in the State for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic in Hindi. In 1881 the *Dárbár* gave sites for two buildings, which have since been completed. These schools are to be branches of the Dúngar Singh College, named after the present Máharájá, in which English, Hindí, and eventually Urdu will be taught. The large subscriptions for this college from the chief nobles and mercantile community will, it is hoped, make the college a permanent institution. There are seven Jain monasteries (*upásarás*), which possess many Sanskrit manuscripts. Bíkaner is famous for the manufacture of a white variety of sugar-candy, and of fine woollen blankets. There are also a large number of potters, stone-cutters, and carvers among the population. The fort of Bíkaner, which contains the Rájá's palace, is situated about 300 yards from the Kot gate of the city. The buildings towering above the battlements present an imposing appearance. The palace is 1078 yards in circuit, with two entrances, each of which has three or four successive gates with different names; and its rampart is strengthened by numerous bastions about 40 feet high, and a moat running all round in a direction parallel to the curtains without following the course of the bastions. This moat is 30 feet wide at the

top, but narrow at the bottom, and 20 or 25 feet deep. The fort was built in Samvat 1645 by Rájá Rai Singh. It has been besieged several times, but is said to have been never taken. The palace buildings are the composite work of a long series of Rájás, nearly every one of whom has contributed something. The elephants and horses, as is usual in a Rájput fort, are stabled just under the palace windows. The old fort, built by Bíka, is picturesquely situated on high rocky ground, surrounded by ravines, outside the southern wall of the city. It is small, and now more a shrine than a fort. Within it are the cenotaphs of Bíka and his successors, with some persons of less note. The cremation tank of Bíkaner, used since the time of Jat Singh, the grandson of Bíka, is situated 3 miles east of the city. On each side of this tank are ranged the cenotaphs of twelve chiefs, from Kalián Sinh to Ratán Singh. Several of them are fine buildings, and all have graceful pillared domes. The material is the red sandstone of Khárí, and Makráni marble, on which is sculptured a bas-relief with the mounted figure of the chief; on foot, standing in order of precedence before him, the wives; and behind and below him, the concubines who mounted his funeral pile. The date, names of the dead, and in some cases a verse of Sanskrit besides, are inscribed. The latest distinguished *satí* in Bíkaner was an Udaipur princess named Díp Kunwar, wife of Rájá Súrat Singh's second son, Moti Singh, who died in 1825 A.D. Not far from the tank is a palace for the convenience of the chief and his ladies when they have occasion to attend ceremonies at Deví Kúnd. The whole *zanána* sometimes comes in procession to worship at Deví Kúnd, where, too, the tonsure of the chief's sons takes place. The city of Bíkaner is in lat. 28° N., long. 73° 22′ E.

Bíkapur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Faizábád *tahsíl*, on the east by Akbarpur *tahsíl*, on the south by Sultánpur and Musáfirkhána *tahsíls* of Sultánpur, and on the west by Rám Sanehi *tahsíl* of Bara Banki; lying between 26° 24′ 30″ and 26° 43′ 30″ N. lat., and between 81° 43′ and 82° 23′ E. long. Area, 466 square miles, of which 262 are cultivated; population, according to the Census of 1881, 248,651 Hindus, 17,364 Muhammadans —total, 266,015, namely, 131,513 males and 134,502 females; number of villages or townships, 630; average density of population, 571 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the 2 *parganás* of Pachhimráth and Jagdíspur-Khandánsa.

Bíkapur.—Village in Faizábád District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Bíkapur *tahsíl*, situated on the metalled road from Faizábád to Allahábád. Population (1881) 331. *Tahsíli*, police station, village school, staging bungalow, and *sarái*.

Bikkavolu.—Village in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency.

Population (1881) 2397, inhabiting 512 houses. Lat. 16° 58′ N., long. 82° 6′ E.; situated on the northern edge of the delta, on a main canal 16 miles west of Coconada.—*See* BIRUDANKA-RAYAPURAM.

Bikrampur.—Village in Dacca District, Bengal; celebrated as being the seat of government under the Hindu kings of Northern Bengal, from the reign of Vikramáditya to the overthrow of the dynasty by the Musalmáns. Lat. 23° 33′ N., long. 90° 33′ 30″ E. A quadrangular mound of earth, covering an area of 3000 square feet, and surrounded by a moat 200 feet wide, is pointed out as the site of Rájá Ballál Sen's palace, and the foundations and remains of buildings are found for many miles round. Near the site of the palace is a deep excavation, called Agnikunda, where, according to legend, the last native prince of Bikrampur and his family burned themselves on the approach of the Musalmáns. The village ranks only second to Nadiyá town as regards Sanskrit learning, and contains several *tols* (*see* NADIYA DISTRICT), where logic, rhetoric, grammar, and astronomy are taught. The *parganá* to which the village gives its name, and which extends over the two police divisions of Munshiganj and Srínagar, supplies nearly one-third of the subordinate native officials in the Government offices of Bengal.

Biláigarh.—Chiefship or *zamíndárí* in Bilaspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 109 square miles, or 69,760 acres, of which only 10,977 acres are cultivated, and about 20,000 acres more are cultivable; number of villages, 54; occupied houses, 2476; population (1881) 10,848, namely, males 5419, and females 5429; average density of population, 99·52 per square mile. The ruins of a large fort and of some ancient temples show that the hamlet of the same name (lat. 21° 38′ 15″ N., long. 82° 46′ E.), where the Chief resides, was once a place of some importance. The Chief is of Gond descent.

Bilári.—*Tahsíl* of Morádábád District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 333 square miles, of which 257 are cultivated; population (1881) 229,784; number of villages, 394; land revenue, £33,310; total revenue, £35,549; rental paid by cultivators, £66,880; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 9d. per acre. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, including municipal police, 64 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 472.

Bilári.—Town in Morádábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bilári *tahsíl*, situated 16 miles south-east of Morádábád town. Population (1881) 4861, namely, 2486 Hindus, and 2375 Musalmáns; town area, 65 acres. A small revenue is raised under the provisions of Act XX. of 1865, for police and conservancy purposes, amounting to £120 in 1881–82. Railway and telegraph station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

Biláspur.—District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central

Provinces, lying between 21° 22′ and 23° 6′ N. lat., and between 80° 48′ and 83° 10′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Native State of Rewá, on the east by the Garhját States of Chutia Nágpur and the chiefships of Sambalpur District; on the south by Ráipur; and on the west by the Districts of Mandlá and Bálághát. Population (1881) 1,017,327; area, 7798 square miles. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at BILASPUR, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—The District resembles a vast amphitheatre, opening on the south upon the plains of Ráipur, but on every other side surrounded by tiers of hills. These irregular chains, though known in each locality by a special name, form in truth a part of the great Vindhyán sandstone range, which extends from east to west across the whole peninsula of India. In Bilaspur, the hills on the northern side constitute the most important series. They run along the whole length of the plain, —here thrusting forth an arm or throwing up an isolated peak, or advancing boldly into the level country, there receding into deep hollows and recesses, usually covered with luxuriant vegetation. From the solitary cliff of Dahlá, 2600 feet high, standing out in the plain about 15 miles east of Bilaspur, the features of the country can be best descried. On the one side, a great expanse of plain stretches away as far as the eye can reach; on the other, rise irregular ranges of hills, which throw a dark shadow on the green surface below. From this height, the spectator can easily discern the villages which dot the landscape, the numerous tanks sparkling in the sun, and the mango, *pípal*, and tamarind groves which break the monotony of the generally shadeless plain. Examined more closely, the vast plateau breaks up into a series of undulations; sometimes a long stretch or sandy or stony upland, then an expanse of low-lying rice fields, and again abrupter alternations, deeply cleft by many a fissure or ravine. But the grander scenery of Bilaspur must be sought in the hilly country occupied by tracts of Government waste, and by fifteen chiefships, in two of which, Sakti and Kawárda, the chiefs have been acknowledged as feudatories. In these highlands, the scanty villages convey no impression of permanence, but are mere solitary breaks in a vast mountain wilderness. In Mátin and Uprora lies perhaps the wildest country in Chhatísgarh. Here it is that the shattered forest trees, the broken and crushed bamboo clumps, the hollows and footprints in a hundred marshes and watercourses, indicate the presence of wild elephants. Sometimes, when the rice crop is ripening, a herd will wander from a neighbouring chiefship, and in a single night destroy the toil of months; but in Mátin and Uprora, elephants are never absent, and may be seen on the wooded slopes of the Hasdu river, in the shady depths of the forest, near some waterfall or deep still pool in the bed of the mountain torrent.

The Mahánadí, though it only flows for about twenty-five miles along the south-eastern extremity of the District, forms the centre of the drainage system of Bilápur. A magnificent river during the rains, attaining in places a breadth of two miles, the Mahánadí in the hot season dwindles down to a narrow stream creeping through a vast expanse of sand, which may almost anywhere be forded with ease. Most of the waters of the District flow from the northern and western hills; but these ranges constitute a distinct watershed, and give birth to other streams, which, flowing north and west, and leaving Bilápur behind them, by degrees assume the dignity of rivers. Such are the Son (Soane), which rises in a marshy hollow in Pendrá, and the Narbadá (Nerbudda), rushing picturesquely over the rocky heights of Amarkantak. The District contains extensive forests, most of which, however, are *zamíndárí*, or private property. The only large tracts of Government forest are the wastes spreading over the Lormí and Lamní hills in the north-west, and the Sonákhán area to the south-east, the total area of the former being 190,269 acres, and of the latter, 97,503.

History.—Until the invasion of the Maráthás, Bilápur was governed by the Haihai Bansí kings of Ratanpur, whose annals are lost in the mist of antiquity. The dealings of Krishna with Mayúr Dwája, the earliest recorded prince of the line, are related in the *Jaimini Purána* (Jaiminiya Aswamedha). The god, disguised as a Bráhman, asked for half of Mayúr Dwája's body to test his faith. The king consented to be cut in two with a saw; but when all was ready, Krishna revealed himself, and showered blessings on the head of the pious prince. From this time until the Maráthá invasion, no man used the saw throughout the land. The Rájás at Ratanpur ruled originally over 36 forts, and hence the tract was called Chhatísgarh, or 'the place of 36 forts.' But on the accession of the twentieth Rájá, Surdevá, about 750 A.D., Chhatísgarh was divided into two sections; and while Surdevá continued to govern the northern half from Ratanpur, his younger brother, Brahmadevá, moved to Ráipur and held the southern portion. From this time two separate Rájás ruled in Chhatísgarh; for though nine generations later the direct line from Brahmadevá became extinct, a younger son from the Ratanpur house again proceeded to Ráipur, whose issue continued in power till the advent of the Maráthás. The 36 forts were in reality each the head-quarters of a *táluk*, comprising a number of villages, held sometimes *khám*, and sometimes as feudal tenures, by relations or influential chiefs. Of the 18 divisions retained by Surdevá, as compared with the present Bilápur District, 11 are *khálsá* jurisdictions, and 7 are *zamíndárís*, while the 18th *karkatí* appears to have been made over to Rewá by Rájá Dádú Rái about 1480, as a dowry to his daughter. Of other tracts now included in Bilápur, Pandaria and Kawardá on the west, were

wrested from the Gond dynasty of Mandlá; Korba from Sargújá about 1520; and the small chiefship of Biláigarh, south of the Mahánadí, with the *khálsá* tract of Kikarda, on the east, from Sambalpur about 1580.

Surdevá was succeeded by his son Prithwídevá, of whose deeds local tradition is full; and the sculptured tablets of Malhár and Amarkantak still record, in Sanskrit verse, how he was a terror to his enemies, a friend to his people, generous to the learned, and himself fond of learning. After Prithwídevá followed a long line of Rájás, whose names are commemorated on temple slabs, associated now with the building of a shrine, now with the construction of a tank; but it was not till the reign of Kalyán Sahí, between 1536 and 1573, that this landlocked region came into contact with the outer world. That prince, leaving the government in his son's hands, proceeded to Delhi to have audience of the great Akbar, and, after eight years' absence, returned to Ratanpur invested with the full rights of Rájá and a high-sounding title. The prudent submission of Kalyán Sahí helped to prolong the independence of his dynasty, and, after nine further successions, a Rájá of the Haihai Bansí line still ruled in Biláspur. But Ráj Singh had no child. At the same time he had no wish that his nearest heir, his great-uncle Sardár Singh, should succeed him. Accordingly the Rájá took counsel of his Bráhman *díwán*, a hereditary servant of the family. After much discussion, and an appeal to the sacred books, it was resolved that a Bráhman selected by the *díwán* should visit the favourite Rání. In due time she gave birth to a son, who received the name of Bisnáth Singh; and the popular rejoicings knew no bounds.

When Bisnáth Singh reached a proper age, he was married to a daughter of the Rájá of Rewá. Soon after the wedding the young couple were playing a game of chance, when Bisnáth Singh tried his bride's temper by defeating her game after game. At length she discovered that he was playing unfairly, and rising from the table she said, half in jest and half in scorn, 'Of course I should expect to be overreached, for are you not a Bráhman, and no Rájput!' Stung to the soul with the taunt, confirming as it did whispers which had already reached him, the young prince went hurriedly out and stabbed himself to the heart. When Ráj Singh heard what had happened, he resolved to revenge himself on his *díwán*, through whose imprudence or treachery the shame of the royal house had been revealed. The Díwán Pārá, or 'Minister's Square,' of Ratanpur at that time formed an imposing part of the town. There lived the *díwán*, and round him a crowd of relations who, however distantly connected, had congregated near the fortunate representative of the family. The Rájá blew down with cannon the whole of this quarter, involving in one common ruin

every member of the small community, to the number of over 400 men women, and children. With the *díwán*, most of the records of the dynasty perished.

After these occurrences Mohan Singh, of the Ráipur house, a vigorous and attractive young man, was generally regarded as the Rájá's destined successor. But Mohan Singh chanced to be away on a hunting expedition, when Ráj Singh was thrown violently from his horse. Finding himself near death, and the young man not appearing, the Rájá placed the *pagrí* on the head of Sardár Singh. A few days after Ráj Singh's death, Mohan Singh arrived, but only to find Sardár Singh duly installed. In a fit of rage he departed, muttering that he would yet return and assume the government. Sardár Singh, however, ruled quietly for twenty years, and was succeeded, in 1732, by his brother Raghunáth Singh, a man over sixty years old. Eight years later the Maráthá general, Bháskar Panth, invaded Biláspur with an army of 40,000 men. At that time Raghunáth Singh was bowed down by a heavy sorrow, having lately lost his only son. The heart-broken old man made no attempt to defend himself, and gave no sign till part of his palace was already in ruins from the enemy's fire. Then one of the Ránís mounted the parapet and exhibited a flag of truce. Thus ingloriously ended the rule of the Haihai Bansí dynasty. The Maráthás, after exacting a heavy fine and pillaging the country, permitted the fallen Rájá to carry on the government in the name of the Bhonslas. Meantime Mohan Singh had become a favourite of Raghují Bhonsla; and on the death of Raghunáth Singh, the ambition of his youth was gratified by his installation as Rájá. In 1758, Bimbájí Bhonsla succeeded, and ruled at Ratanpur for nearly thirty years; and when he died, his widow, Anandí Bái, held the real authority till about 1800.

From this time till the deposition of Apá Sáhib by the British in 1818, a succession of *subahdárs* misgoverned Biláspur. The occupation of the District by a Maráthá army, the raids of the Pindárís, and the exactions of the *subahdárs* or deputies, had half ruined the country, when it was placed under Colonel Agnew's superintendence. From this date it has begun to improve. In 1830 the last Raghují came of age, and ruled from that time until his death. On the lapse of the Nágpur Province to the British Government in 1854, Chhatísgarh was formed into a separate Deputy Commissionership with head-quarters at Ráipur; but the charge proved too heavy for a single officer, and finally, in 1861, Bilāspur was constituted a separate District, comprising, with the additions subsequently made, the northern section of the Chhatísgarh country. During the Mutiny, no disturbance occurred except at Sonákhán, a small estate among the hills at the south-eastern corner of the District, the *zamíndár* of which, breaking out from Ráipur jail, where he was confined on a charge of dacoity with murder, returned

to his fastnesses and openly defied authority. Captain Lucie-Smith, however, at once proceeded to the spot, and the *zamíndár* unconditionally surrendered. His execution, and the confiscation of his property, effectually checked any further opposition, which in so wild a country might have proved most harassing.

Population.—In 1872, Biláspur District, with an area of 7798 square miles, contained a population returned by the Census of that year at 715,398. By 1881, the population, on the same area, had risen to 1,017,327, or an increase of 301,929 (42·2 per cent.) in the nine years. This increase, however, is much more apparent than real, owing to very defective enumeration in 1872, particularly in the *zamíndárí* part of the District, where the work was left almost entirely in the hands of the *zamíndárs*. The population of the District in 1881 (1,017,327) was distributed throughout 3724 towns and villages; number of houses, 290,299, of which 281,580 were inhabited and 8719 unoccupied; average density of population, 130·5 per square mile; inmates per occupied house, 3·61. Divided according to sex, there were—males 504,046, and females 513,281; proportion of males in total population, 49·6 per cent. According to religious classification, orthodox Hindus numbered 629,659; Kabírpanthís, 87,348; Satnámis, 133,086; Muhammadans, 9625; Sikhs, 10; Christians, 35; Jains, 17; aboriginal tribes, 157,547. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes is the Gonds, 123,928 in 1881, of whom 8811 were returned as Hindus, the remainder consisting ofOthariás, Mariás, Kurkús, Baigás, etc. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans numbered in 1881, 23,224; Rájputs, 15,928; Kúrmís, 41,327; Telís, 61,324; Ahírs or Gaulís, 84,546; Chamárs, 95,020; Marárs, 24,541; Dhobís, 15,178; and Kewats, 34,767. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census of 1881 classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 6715; (2) domestic servants, etc., 2724; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3215; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 242,562; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 29,551; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 8056 labourers and 211,223 unspecified, including children), 219,279.

A cloth of scanty dimensions forms the sole dress of a cultivator, and a cloth of larger size satisfies all the requirements of fashion for the women. It is tightened at the waist; and, while half hangs loosely down to the knee, the other half is spread over the breast, and drawn across the right shoulder. For ornaments, a man will adopt a gold or silver bracelet, or small ear-rings, or pride himself on a silver waistband; few, except young Gond ladies, wear toe-rings or anklets. All classes habitually take three meals a day—rice and *dál* at noon, rice

and vegetables cooked with *ghí* in the evening, and in the morning, before beginning work, a rice gruel called *bású*, which consists simply of the remains of the last evening's repast filled up with water and served cold. The castes who eat fish and flesh have of course a greater variety of diet; and the abundance of milk and *gúr* enables a clever matron to provide occasional sweets. On the whole, the great body of the people live well; but their simplicity and superstition render them an easy prey to designing persons. An instance may be mentioned. About twenty years ago a Panká, named Mangal, gave out that a deity had entered into him; and, sitting with a light before him, he received the adoration and offerings of crowds of worshippers. It happened to be the cultivating season, and Mangal proclaimed that good men's crops would spring up without sowing. Thousands believed his teaching, till, finding the revenue falling off, the Native Government arrested Mangal, and committed him to Ráipur jail. The language spoken in the District is corrupt Hindí, with an admixture of aboriginal words. The largest towns in the District are—BILASPUR (population, 7775), RATANPUR (5615), and MUNGELI (4757); 84 other towns have a population exceeding 1000. Townships of from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 1720; villages of fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1917. The only municipality is Biláspur.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 7798 square miles, 2121 were returned in 1881 as under cultivation, 4164 square miles as cultivable, and 1063 square miles as uncultivable waste. About one-fifth of the area under cultivation is irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. Rice forms the staple crop of the District, occupying in 1881, 751,529 acres, the other principal crops being—wheat, 537,470 acres; other food-grains, 291,680 acres; oil-seeds, 112,500 acres; sugar-cane, 13,843 acres; cotton, 33,070 acres; fibres, 2763 acres; tobacco, 4345 acres; and vegetables, 4031 acres. These figures include land bearing two crops in the year. Either the black earth, consisting of the *débris* of trap, or the red, which is probably decomposed laterite, is most suitable for rice; but the situation and aspect of the rice fields, which are excessively small, are considered of more importance than the nature of the soil. Sugar-cane and garden produce grow well on the sandy patches. It is only for these crops that irrigation is resorted to and manure used. Where rice is grown, rotation of crops is not practised, nor is the land allowed to remain fallow. The yield of new land averages 25 to 30 per cent. extra, till in four or five years it falls to the common level. With other crops rotation is in use. Thus, after wheat will come gram or *masúr*, and then perhaps *kodo*. Cotton is often succeeded by *tíl* or some other oil-seed; and where this is not done, after four or five years the land is left fallow. The cultivation of cotton continues to increase, having nearly doubled within the last few years. The Census of 1881

showed a total of 9098 proprietors. The tenants of all grades numbered 315,872, of whom 61,817 had either absolute or occupancy rights, 148,852 were tenants-at-will, and 105,203 assistants in home cultivation. The agricultural labourers numbered 78,257. The average area cultivated in 1881 by each head of the regular agricultural population (405,067, or 39·82 per cent. of the District population) was 7 acres; the amount of Government land revenue and local cesses levied on the landholders was £28,643; and the amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators was £61,049.

The rent of land suited for rice averages 11d.; for wheat, 1s. 2d.; for cotton or oil-seeds, 9d.; for sugar-cane, 3s. 6d. Average produce per acre—rice, 424 lbs.; wheat, 324 lbs.; cotton, 54 lbs.; and oil-seeds, 120 lbs. The price of rice at the end of 1881–82 was 2s. per cwt.; wheat, 2s. 4d. per cwt.; and raw sugar (*gur*), 11s. per cwt. Wages average for skilled labour 1s. per diem, for unskilled 3d. The agricultural stock is thus returned—cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 655,640; horses, 354; ponies, 4691; donkeys, 104; sheep and goats, 21,235; pigs, 4861; carts, 13,647; and ploughs, 287,202. The extensive forests of the District are situated in the *zamíndárís*, and belong to private proprietors; the only large tracts of Government forest consist of the wastes which spread over the Lormí and Lamní Hills on the north-west, and the confiscated area at Sonákhán. On the plain skirting the northern hills, other patches of jungle have been reserved. *Sál* is the only valuable timber, and the inaccessibility of the forests renders the revenue from this source of small value. Of jungle products, *lac* and *tasar* silk are the most important. In some villages the practice prevails of changing fields periodically, to prevent any monopoly of the best sites. Everywhere throughout the District the husbandmen show but slight attachment to their individual holdings; even a hereditary tenant will, for a small sum, relinquish his land.

Natural Calamities.—An agricultural population, dependent for its subsistence on a single crop, and that one which requires a heavy downpour in each of the four rainy months, would appear peculiarly exposed to famine. Happily, however, owing to its girdle of hills, Biláspur enjoys a fairly regular monsoon, and an abundant fall in one part generally compensates for drought in another. Moreover, the numerous tanks, though of small size, add considerably to the water supply of the District.

Commerce and Trade. — The weaving trade constitutes the only important local industry. In 1870, it employed about 6000 looms, turning out at least 600,000 cloths, of the value of £60,000. Besides the regular weavers, the Panká caste work at the loom as well as in the fields, and nearly half the cloth in the District is made by them. Iron-ore abounds in the hilly regions; but owing to the absence of *agárias*

or smelters, the manufacture does not extend beyond a few villages. Near Korba on the right bank of the Hasdu, and in the beds of two hill streams, the Bijákherá and Mundjhária, and probably in other parts, coal exists in considerable quantities. It is shaly and inferior on the surface, and whether the lower seams will prove of better quality has not yet been ascertained. The District offers at many points sandstone excellently suited for building purposes, but the only important quarries are those near Biláspur and Seorinaráyan. The weekly markets, of which at least 170 are held throughout the District, supply the means of internal trade. They are held either in a shady mango grove, or, more frequently, in some open space near a village. At the large *bázárs* at Bámindi, Ganiárí, Takhtpur, and Mungelí, a brisk traffic in cattle is carried on. The chief imports of the District are sugar, metals, English piece-goods, and cattle, while the exports consist entirely of agricultural produce—rice, wheat, gram, and *lac*. The whole trade tends in a westerly direction, to the railway at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). In that direction the Banjárás drive their long lines of pack-bullocks along a track winding over hill and valley, and across the steep and craggy beds of numerous streams. The northern routes through Pendra to Rewá, and through Uprorá to Mirzápur, pass over a difficult country, and are only available for pack-bullocks during six months in the year. Though no made roads yet exist in Biláspur, the abundance of gravel would render their construction comparatively easy. During half the year the Mahánadí supplies a means of communication for the 25 miles of its course through the District, but rocky barriers render the navigation a difficult task.

Administration.—In 1861, Biláspur was formed into a separate District under the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with 2 Assistant Commissioners and 3 *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1868–69, £31,977, of which the land yielded £27,195; total cost of officials and police of all kinds, £10,802. By 1881–82, the gross revenue had increased to £41,339, of which the land contributed £28,093; cost of officials and police, £12,397; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts, 7; of magistrates, 6; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 56 miles: average distance, 10 miles; number of police, 331, being 1 policeman to every 24 square miles and to every 3073 inhabitants. Owing chiefly to the plenty which prevails throughout the District, crime is comparatively rare, and for the most part confined to small offences. In 1881, the daily number of convicts in jail averaged 112·76, of whom 14·20 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection in 1881 was 68, attended by 4387 pupils. Bilaspur, the only municipality, contains a population of 7775 persons; the total municipal income in

1881 was £203, of which £78 was derived from taxation, at an average rate of 2½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—From the middle of April to the middle of June hot winds prevail, and the heat is frequently excessive, though tempered by occasional showers. After the first heavy fall of rain, the climate becomes cool and agreeable, and few days pass without a pleasant breeze. In the plain, however, the cold weather from November to February fails to prove bracing. Average temperature in the shade at the civil station—May, highest reading 113° F., lowest 84°; July, highest reading 101°, lowest 74°; December, highest reading 89°, lowest 56°. From 1862 to 1881 the mean yearly rainfall was 47·26 inches, but in the latter year the fall was 65·32 inches, or 18·06 above the yearly average. In the opinion of Mr. Chisholm—to whose Settlement Report this article is greatly indebted—the climate of Biláspur has a worse name than it deserves, owing to the attacks of cholera which formerly broke out during the hot weather along the pilgrim route to Jagannáth, and thence spread over the country. In 1868, the passage of pilgrims was prohibited, with the best results. Fever proves by far the most fatal disease in the District, and about the end of the cold weather small-pox prevails. In 1882, the recorded death-rate from all causes was 26·19 per 1000 of the population, the mean for the previous five years being 34·80. In that year three charitable dispensaries afforded relief to 20,488 in-door and out-door patients. [For further information regarding Biláspur see the *Settlement Report* of the District, by J. W. Chisholm, Esq. (1868); the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S., C.S.I. (Nagpur, 1870); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the *Administration Reports* of those Provinces from 1880 to 1883.]

Biláspur.—Revenue Sub-division or *tahsíl* of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 38′ and 22° 25′ N. lat., and between 81° 46′ and 82° 31′ E. long.; population (1881) 418,620, namely, males 209,108, and females 209,512; distributed among 1724 villages or townships, and 120,789 inhabited houses; area, 4770 square miles; average density of population, 88 per square mile; land revenue, £8073; total revenue, £8766; total rental paid by cultivators, £18,594, or 1s. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contained, in 1883, 4 civil and 4 criminal courts, including the head-quarters courts of the District, with 3 police stations (*thánás*) and 7 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 74 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 749.

Biláspur.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Biláspur District, Central Provinces; on the south bank of the river Arpá. Lat. 22° 5′ N., long. 82° 12′ E.; population (1881) 7775, namely, Hindus, 6281; Kabírpanthís, 242; Satnámís, 59; Muhammadans, 1030; Christians, 22; aboriginal tribes, 141. Founded about 300

years ago by a fisherwoman named Bilása, whence the name Biláspur, it long consisted of only a few fishermen's huts, till, about a century ago, Kesava Panth Subah, who administered the District under the Maráthás, fixed his residence here and began to build a brick fort on the river-bank. Subsequently, on the Maráthás removing their head-quarters to RATANPUR, the rising prosperity of the town dwindled away. In 1862, however, Bilúspur was constituted the head-quarters of the British District. The belt of woods, the gardens and mango groves, and the distant hills, render the situation pleasant and attractive.

Biláspur. — Village in Bulandshahr District, North - Western Provinces; 16 miles south-west of Bulandshahr town, and 2 miles south of Sikandarábád railway station, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Population (1881) 3292. Post-office, school, market on Saturdays. Chiefly remarkable as head-quarters of the Skinner family and estate, founded by Col. James Skinner, C.B. Handsome house and fine garden adjoining the old mud fort. Mr. T. Skinner held the fort during the Mutiny. Owing to the bad management of his eldest son, the Court of Wards has taken charge of his share of the estate.

Biláspur.—One of the Punjab Hill States.—*See* KAHLUR.

Biláspur.—Capital of the Biláspur or Kahlúr State, Punjab, and residence of the Rájá. Lat. 31° 19′ N., long. 76° 50′ E. Picturesquely situated on the left bank of the Sutlej, 1465 feet above sea-level. Suffered much in the early part of the present century from the depredations of the Gurkhás. Well - built stone houses; *bázár;* neat but unpretentious palace of the Rájá. Ferry across the Sutlej, 2 miles above the town, forms the chief communication with the Punjab proper.

Bilaudá. — A guaranteed Thákurate under the Western Málwá Agency of Central India.

Bilehri. — Village in Murwárá *tahsíl,* Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2557, namely, Hindus, 2217; Muhammadans, 287; Jains, 51; aborigines, 2.

Bilga.—Town in Philaur *tahsíl,* Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 3′ N., long. 75° 4′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 6634, namely, Hindus, 4818; Muhammadans, 1263; and Sikhs, 553. Unimportant, commercially and politically. Formerly possessed a municipality, which was abolished some years ago.

Bilgrám.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sháhábád, and on the east by Hardoi *tahsíls;* on the south by Safipur *tahsíl* of Unao; and on the west by Farukhábád District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 558 square miles, of which 351 are cultivated. Population (1881), Hindus, 234,635;

Muhammadans, 24,643: total, 259,278. The *tahsíl* consists of the 5 *parganás* of Bilgrám, Sándi, Katiári, Mallánwán, and Kachhandan. The Sub-division contained, in 1883, 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 46 men; municipal police, 47; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 681.

Bilgrám.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sándi, on the east and south by Mallánwán, and on the west by Bangar. The *parganá* was formed in the time of Akbar, and is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as covering 192,800 *bighás*, and paying a land revenue of 5,124,113 *dáms*, besides 356,690 *dáms* of cesses. It was held by Sayyids, and garrisoned by 1000 foot soldiers and 20 troopers, lodged in a masonry fort. Its area included *parganá* Bangar. The Ráikwárs, who expelled the Thatherás, founded the now ruined town and fort of Srínagar in the 9th or 10th century, and held the surrounding country up to the time of the campaign of Sháhab-ud-dín Ghori in 1193, which resulted in the fall of Kanauj, and the subsequent subjugation of Oudh by Sháms-ud-dín Altamsh in 1217. The two officers who reduced Srínagar and the surrounding country are the ancestors of the present Muhammadan *tálukdárs* of Bilgrám. Area, 117 square miles, of which 71 are cultivated. Staple products, barley, *bájra*, wheat, *arhar*, *joár*, and gram. Tobacco is largely grown in the vicinity of Bilgrám town. Government land revenue, £7468, showing an average incidence of 3s. 4⅞d. per acre of cultivated land, and 1s. 11⅞d. per acre of total area. More than half the *parganá* is held by Sayyids, who own 64 villages; Shaikhs and Patháns each hold 1; Rájputs, 27, of which only 5 now remain to the Ráikwárs; other castes, 10, while 2 are in the possession of Government. The different tenures under which the villages are held are—*tálukdárí*, 58½; *zamíndárí*, 34½; *pattidárí*, 21. Population (1881) 57,360, namely, 30,762 males and 26,598 females; average density of population, 490 per square mile. The Chamárs form a seventh, the Ahírs a ninth, and the Bráhmans rather less than a tenth of the population. Two unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*.

Bilgrám.—Chief town of Bilgrám *tahsíl*, in Hardoi District, and the twelfth in importance among the towns of Oudh; near the left bank of the old channel of the Ganges, about 15 miles south of Hardoi town. Lat. 27° 10′ 30″ N., long. 80° 4′ 30″ E. In olden times this place was held by the Thatherás, who were expelled by the Ráikwárs under Rájá Srí Rám, who founded a city which he named after himself, Srínagar. The Ráikwárs in their turn were ousted by the Muhammadans about 1217 A.D. A famous Muhammadan saint, whose tomb is the oldest Musalmán building in the place, is said to have slain a demon named Bel by his enchantments, and the name of the place was changed to Belgrám or Bilgrám. The town abounds with fragments of carved

stone bas-reliefs, pillars, and capitals of old Hindu columns. Great blocks of stone and *kankar* mark what are believed to be the remains of the old fort and temple of Srínagar and the Ságar tank, constructed by Rájá Srí Rám. Population (1881) 11,067, namely, 6353 Hindus, and 4714 Muhammadans; area of town site, 200 acres. Municipal revenue in 1880, £236, or 4d. per head of municipal population. Principal buildings—the *tahsíli* courts, police station, school, *sarái*, *imámbára*, and several mosques. The two *bázárs* were constructed by the Nawáb Mehndí Ali Khán, as also the large and important grain mart at Rafáatganj, half a mile south of the town, whence large quantities of wheat and barley are despatched to Kanauj, Farukhábád, and Cawnpur. The principal articles made in Bilgrám are brass *pán* boxes, shoes, and sweetmeats. Bilgrám is also noted as the birthplace of several famous Muhammadan poets, historians, and Government officials.

Bilhaur.—*Tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the southern bank of the Ganges. Area, 187 square miles, of which 151 are cultivated; population (1881) 100,654; land revenue, £19,353; total revenue, £21,675; rental paid by cultivators, £37,165. The *tahsíl* is watered by two streams. Through the north flows the Isan, which, until close to its junction with the Ganges, runs parallel with that river. The Pándu flows near and parallel to the south-west boundary. The soil through which the Pándu passes is hard consistent loam (*dúma*), with an almost level surface, out of which the bed of the river appears to have been cut with difficulty. That traversed by the Isan consists, on the contrary, of light sandy soil, easily eroded by the action of water, or blown by the winds into undulating hillocks. A considerable portion of the *tahsíl* is irrigated, either from the numerous distributaries of the Cawnpur branch of the Ganges Canal, or from wells. The Grand Trunk Road crosses the *tahsíl* from south-east to north-west, with encamping grounds at Púra and Arwal. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, with 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 36 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 230.

Bilhaur.—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bilhaur *tahsíl*. Lies on the Grand Trunk Road, 34 miles north-west of Cawnpur, 4 miles from the Ganges, and 1 from the Isan. Lat. 26° 50′ 10″ N., long. 80° 6′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 5889, namely, 3621 Hindus and 2268 Muhammadans; area of town site, 100 acres. A small municipal income for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856. Centre of local disturbance during the Mutiny of 1857. The public buildings consist of a *tahsíli*, first-class police station, imperial post-office, school and road bungalow. Unmetalled roads connect the town with Rasúlábád and Makanpur.

Biligiri-rangan.—Range of hills in the east of the Yelandúr *jágír*, running north and south for about 11 miles, in Mysore District, Mysore State, and extending to the Hassanúr pass in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 40′ to 12° 10′ N., long. 77° 10′ E. On the highest point of the western part of the range, about 5000 feet above sea-level, is the temple of Biligiri Rangaswámí, the Sanskrit Svetadri, from which the hills are named. The slopes are steep, and covered with long grass and groves of forest trees, including teak and sandal-wood. Wild animals abound, especially elephants, bison, and *sámbhar* deer. The only inhabitants are the wild tribe of Soligárs, who occupy isolated hamlets of wattle huts. The summit is reached by two paths, the best of which, 9 miles long, is just passable for horses. There is a good cart road to the foot of the hills from the town of Yelandúr, distant about 6 miles. At the top is a bungalow, near which is a cinchona plantation, protected from wild elephants by a deep trench, and in the neighbourhood is a neat little orchard, where some Indian and foreign fruit-trees are grown with great success. Excepting a small garden owned by the *shánbhóg* of the temple, coffee-planting has not yet been introduced, though the soil and climate are favourable. The obstacles are fever at certain seasons of the year, and an insufficient supply of drinking water. The temperature is moderate, the thermometer seldom rising above 75° or falling below 60° F. The temple is a shrine of great antiquity, built on the brink of a precipice. An endowment of two villages granted by the Díwán Púrnaiya yields a revenue of £95. On the summit of a neighbouring peak are the ruins of an old fort.—*See* BALIRANGAN.

Bilihra.—Rent-free estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, consisting of 5 villages; area, 15 square miles. This estate, which originally comprised 12 villages, was assigned by the Peshwá to one Prithwi Pát at a quit-rent. His descendants remained in undisturbed possession till 1818, when the District was ceded to the British, and the quit-rent tenure was changed. Seven out of the 12 villages were fully assessed, and 5 (the present estate) were continued to the possessors rent-free in perpetuity. Bilihra village contained in 1881 a population of 1519, dwelling in 434 houses. Village school. Land revenue of the estate, £496; rental paid by cultivators, £936.

Bilimorá.—Town belonging to the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda, Bombay Presidency. Situated on the bank of the river Ambika, about 13 miles from Naosári, and 135 miles from Bombay. Lat. 20° 41′ N., long. 73° 4′ E. It is the seat of a town magistrate, and has a customs-house, dispensary, post-office, and a vernacular school. Population (1881) 4508, namely, 2907 Hindus, 578 Muhammadans, 784 Pársís, and 239 Jains. Bilimorá is a station on the Bombay and Baroda Railway. Value of sea-borne trade for 1880-81—exports,

£107,078; imports, £16,323. A considerable amount of castor-oil is manufactured. Contains a Government bungalow and a Pársi tower of silence.

Bílin (*Bhíleng* or *Bheeleng*).—River in the Tenasserim Division of British Burma. It rises in about the latitude of Kyauk-gyí among the mountains between the rivers Sittaung and Salwín, and after a southerly course of 282 miles, falls into the Bay of Bengal eastward of the mouth of the Sittaung. For many miles, the Bílin is shallow with a rapid current. When it enters the plains of Shwe-gyin the bed deepens; and after flowing past Yin-ún and Bílin, and receiving the waters of numerous creeks, it becomes very tortuous, and finally spreads out into a bell mouth 2 miles broad, up which a 'bore' rushes with great velocity. This, in the dry season, is felt as far as Bílin town. During the rains the river overflows its banks, and deposits rich alluvial mud on the bordering plains. Those in the south-east, the Thein-seip and Tha-tún, are now protected by the Dún-won and Kama-thaing embankment, raised a few miles south of the Kyúne-ip river, the southern boundary of Shwe-gyin District. From May to September the portion of the course of the Bílin between the mouths of the Shwe-le creek and Kyúne-ip river forms the main water-route from the Sittaung to Maulmain.

Bílin (*Bhíleng*, *Bheeleng*).—Town and head-quarters of Bílin-Kyaik-to township, Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 17° 14′ N., long. 97° 16′ E.; population (1881) 2274, chiefly Burmese traders. A regularly built town, situated on the right bank of the river Bílin, with court and circuit houses, police station, and a market. Uzana, Governor of Martaban, settled here with a number of Burmese followers in 1824, when retreating before the British arms, and was confirmed as governor by the Burmese king. In 1830 he was murdered, and the extent of territory under the governor's control was reduced. During the second Burmese war, Bílin was surrendered to the British. Soon afterwards, an insurrection, headed by a Shan Thúgyí, broke out, and was suppressed by our troops. Since that time, the town has several times been attacked and plundered by robbers, and has twice been burnt down and rebuilt. Local revenue (1881–82) £218.

Bílin-kyaik-to (*Bhíleng-kyaik-hto*, *Bheeleng-kyaik-hto*).—Township in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Head-quarters at Bílin town. Population (1881) 38,964, chiefly Talaings and Burmese. Bounded north by the lower range of the Salwin Hill Tracts; south by the Bay of Bengal; east by the Bílin, its only river; and west by the Kadat stream. Bílin-kyaik-to consists of a wide alluvial plain, traversed by numerous streams draining the southern hill slopes, and admitting the full rush of the tide, which rises into a 'bore' in every channel, and

sweeps up almost to the foot of the hills. The geological formation of the country shows that at no very remote period it was entirely covered by the sea. Local traditions, and the occasional discovery of large cables at Taik-kala and other places inland, help to confirm this opinion. Chief crops, sugar-cane and vegetables. Porcelain clay found on the banks of the Bílin is mixed with other minerals brought by the Shans, who are chiefly engaged in this manufacture, from their States, and made into vessels of rude design. Gross revenue (1882) £9483.

Bilrám.—Town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 19 miles north-east of Etah town. Population (1881) 3254. Connected with the *tahsíl* town of Kásganj by a broad road. Bi-weekly market. Bilrám is said to have been originally founded about 560 years ago by Chauhán Rájputs; but afterwards entirely destroyed by the Muhammadans, and the population either slain or forcibly converted to the faith of their conquerors. The numerous and extensive ruins of mosques and large buildings attest that in former days it must have been a place of considerable importance. The town is now far from flourishing, and has little or no trade. Village school.

Bilri.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £300.

Bilsi.—Town in Sahaswán *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; 15 miles north-west of Budáun town. Lat. 28° 7′ 45″ N., long. 78° 56′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 6301, namely, 5164 Hindus, 1024 Muhammadans, 107 Jains, and 6 Christians; area of town site, 78 acres. Largest mart for the neighbouring portions of Rohilkhand. The town was founded under the rule of the Nawáb Wazírs of Oudh during the last quarter of the 18th century. It consists of two principal wards, Bilsi and Sáhibganj, the latter so called from its being the head-quarters of a large European indigo factory, which has branch factories all over the District. Its commercial activity is probably due to the good roads constructed during the last half-century, which connect it with Chandausí, Budáun, Háthras, and Fatehgarh. With these places there is a brisk trade, the principal exports being wheat, sugar, leather, canvas for gunny-bags, and parched rice; the principal imports, cotton, clarified butter and other groceries, salt, red-dye (*ál*), iron, brass, and copper utensils, chintz, and English and country cloth. School, dispensary, post-office, and *sarái.* Municipal revenue in 1880–81, £325, or 1s. 0¼d. per head of municipal population.

Bílú-Gywon (*Bhílú-Gywon*, *Bheeloo-Gywon*).—An island lying in the mouth of the Salwín river, in Amherst District, British Burma; lying between 16° 15′ and 16° 31′ N. lat., and between 97° 30′ and 97° 39′ E. long.; population (1881) 28,020, or 262 per square mile; area, 107 square miles; length, 30 miles, stretching from Martaban to Amherst, of

which District it forms a township. The western portion of the island constituted, under the Burmese, a separate township called Daray, formerly cut off from the rest of the island by the Seibala creek, whose northern end has now entirely silted up. The centre of the island from north to south is occupied by a range of wooded and pagoda-topped hills, sending out spurs which traverse the extensive alluvial plains to the east and west. The head-quarters of Bílú-Gywon are at Chaung-zun, situated in a dip of the hills in the centre of the island, where there is an artificial reservoir. Between Chaung-zun and the northern end of the island, in the Ka-nyaw Hills, is a hot saline spring, used in cases of rheumatism and skin diseases. The villages are generally large and straggling; and owing to a Talaing prejudice against living in houses not facing the north, most of the dwellings look in that direction. The island is intersected by creeks, which enable its produce to be exported at little expense. The chief crop is rice. There are two roads in the island. Under the Burmese, this township, exclusive of Daray, was divided into twelve 'Ywa,' meaning in this instance tracts of country divided off for fiscal purposes, and each placed under a Thúgyí. After the cession of Tenasserim to the British, and the re-peopling of the township, the revenue divisions became tribal instead of territorial. In 1848, Captain (now Sir Arthur) Phayre, the Deputy Commissioner, fixed the boundaries of the circles, retaining as far as possible the limits of the ancient divisions. In certain cases, as when the reduction of a Thúgyí's office might be felt as a hardship, the Ywa was divided. Eighteen circles were thus formed, but the number was reduced in 1868 to 15, and is now (1883) 12.

Rice cultivation has very considerably increased. In 1848, the number of acres under tillage was 15,225; in 1858, it was 27,606; in 1868, 32,545; in 1873, 42,318; in 1876, 41,274; and in 1881, 46,469. Gross revenue (1881), £14,891, of which £10,760 was derived from the land. Bílú-gywon means 'Caco-demon Island,' the name being derived from traditions of former cannibal inhabitants.

Bimlipatam.—*Zamíndárí* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Houses, 24,329, grouped into 119 villages, all *zamíndárí*. Population (1881) 106,267, namely, 53,645 males and 52,622 females. Hindus numbered 104,953; Muhammadans, 962; Christians, mostly Roman Catholics, 343; 'others,' 9. Area, 211 square miles.

Bimlipatam.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 53′ 15″ N., long. 83° 29′ 50″ E.; houses, 1735; population (1881) 8582, namely, 7991 Hindus, 359 Muhammadans, and 232 Christians. Situated on the coast 18 miles north-east of Vizagapatam, and 454 south-west from Calcutta. Municipal revenue in 1881, £1102; incidence of municipal taxation, including tolls, per head of rateable population, 1s. 8¼d. The amount allotted for sanitary purposes in

1880-81 was £225. Birth-rate 18·0 per 1000, and death-rate 20·9 per 1000 of population within municipal limits. Subordinate magistrate's court, dispensary, post and telegraph offices, etc. As the chief port of the District, Bimlipatam enjoys a large trade. In 1852-53, the total tonnage entering the port was 83,760; by 1868 the value of the exports had risen to £220,000, and that of the imports to £310,000. Besides this, the trade in bullion was—imports, £92,793, and exports, £21,334. The returns for 1880-81 show a total tonnage of 218,022 tons; the exports being valued at £257,476, and the imports at £289,873. In 1881-82 the exports were valued at £237,260, and the imports at £205,492. The chief exports are gingelly, indigo, and myrabolans; and the imports are cotton-twist, piece-goods, machinery, and liquors. Though an open roadstead, the port is somewhat protected by the Upada and Sugar-loaf headlands; and good anchorage, in 6½ fathoms, can be obtained 2 miles off shore. The river does not admit boats of more than 60 tons, and these only during a portion of the year. The Madras Bank has a branch here. Tradition derives the name from Bhíma, one of the Pándu princes, who is said to have founded the town. In the 17th century, the Dutch erected a factory here, and held it till 1825, when it was ceded to the Company. Till 1846, Bimlipatam remained a mere fishing village, but in that year began to attract European capital and enterprise. It now forms a regular place of call for coasting steamers and ships. The statistics given above show that the tonnage of vessels visiting the port has multiplied three-fold since 1853.

Bindki.—Town in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 6698, namely, Hindus, 5213; and Muhammadans, 1485; area of town site, 122 acres.

Bindrában.—A sacred city of the Hindus, in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BRINDABAN.

Bindránawágarh.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Ráipur *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Area 1449 square miles, a small proportion only of which is under cultivation; number of villages, 279; occupied houses, 10,456; population (1881) 37,079, namely, 19,323 males and 17,756 females; average density of population, 25·6 per square mile. The chief is a Gond by caste.

Binginapalli.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 1257. Till recently a large salt export station, with a local manufacture of 110,000 *maunds* per annum.

Binlaing (*Bhenglaing*).—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; formed by the junction of the Dúnthamí and Kyauk-Sarit, and falling into the Salwín in lat. 16° 45′ N. It flows between high and wooded banks, and is navigable throughout. Across its mouth a sandbar has formed, impassable at low water. During the

rains, it is used as the ordinary route between Maulmain and the Sittaung river.

Bír.—Village with iron mines in Kángra District, Punjab; 28 miles from Kángra fort. Lat. 32° 2′ 45″ N., long. 76° 46′ 15″ E. The mining district lies in the Dháola Dhár range, and extends for some 14 miles along the valley of the river Ul, its centre being at the village of Dharmáni. The ore occurs in the form of crystalline magnetic oxide of iron, embedded in decomposed and friable mica-schists. It is worked at its outcrop in open quarries. The metal produced equals in quality the finest iron obtained in England; but, owing to the remoteness of the mines from any large market, the inadequacy of the fuel supply, the imperfect means of communication, and the limited amount of labour available, very small quantities are at present smelted. The estimated out-turn does not exceed 100 tons per annum. Developed by European capital and engineering skill, the mines of Bír might possibly produce large quantities of excellent metal. The ore is of the same character as that from which the best Swedish iron is manufactured.

Bír Bandh.—An embankment running along the west bank of the Dáús river, in the north of Bhágalpur District, Bengal. It is usually represented as being a fortification erected by a prince named Bír; and this supposition is favoured by the fact that the Dáús is at present an insignificant stream, which does not require embanking. At one time, however, it was probably much larger, and it may be that the Bír Bandh was raised to restrain its overflow.

Biramganta.—Town and formerly a salt-station in Nellore District, Madras Presidency; 5 miles from Ongole.

END OF VOLUME II.

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